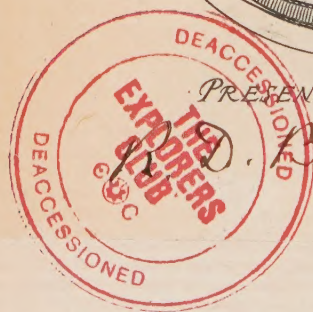




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Farthest West
Life and Travel in the
United States



NEW YORK: THE GREAT "FLATIRON" BUILDING, CORNER OF
BROADWAY, FIFTH AVENUE, AND TWENTY-THIRD STREET

Frontispiece

FARTHEST WEST

LIFE AND TRAVEL IN THE UNITED STATES

BY

C. REGINALD ENOCK, F.R.G.S.

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WITH THIRTY-TWO ILLUSTRATIONS AND A MAP



NEW YORK
D. APPLETON AND COMPANY

1910

Preface

IT is the purpose of this book to present a survey of life in the United States, considered in the light of present social evolution. The pictures drawn are not hasty generalizations, but the result of some years' travel and residence in the country, tempered by much thought about the American people and sympathy with their development. The study of Democracy, its virtues and defects, is much before the world at the present time; and America is working out problems whose teaching are of great value to Britain. In which country shall first germinate the spirit of true "Imperialism" which, we trust, is to be born out of this commercial age? Which community will first form that great "Imperial Commonwealth," which by the organization of its natural resources for the benefit of its people will establish its civilization on an enduring basis? Will it be Britain or America? In old Europe we are constantly looking towards the Americans to mark how their civilization unfolds, always expecting

PREFACE

that in a New World, untrammelled by the traditions of the old, they will have taken a step forward in the betterment of society. We are still hoping; but doubtless the real fact is that the old and the new worlds are indispensable to each other, and that their civilizations must advance conjointly. At present the Americans are on the full tide of their material prosperity, such as precedes a more humane civilization.

THE AUTHOR

LONDON, *June*, 1910

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The Author is indebted to the following sources for some of the photographs published in this book: New York Central Railway, Denver and Rio Grande Railway, Northern Pacific Railway, Seattle Chamber of Commerce, Great Central Railway Company, of London, St. Louis Chamber of Commerce, and others.

CHAPTER I

A PRELIMINARY GLANCE

Our American cousins—Reasons for America's greatness—Pre-historic migrations—Asia and Egypt—Early Scandinavian explorer—Fortunate colonizations—Columbus—Main incidents of American history—Rapid increase of population—Purely American defects—Is civilization advancing in America?—The spirit of Americanism

FEW Englishmen, or men of British race generally, whether in the United Kingdom or the larger area of their empire, regard the United States and the American people with other than a sense of strong interest and sympathy. Whether they are, or are not, our "cousins," may be left to those who wish to find such relationship, on either side; and notwithstanding the increasing element of non-British origin which year by year swells and influences their nationality, it is evident that the Americans retain the character and structure which they inherited from their one-time motherland. We of Britain believe that they are animated in the main by the same spirit which pervades our own life. They have improved upon it in some respects; they have gone far inferior to it in others, but it marks them out from all the other nations of the world.

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As regards our intimate knowledge of this great people, who have come to being in a great temperate land undreamt of 400 years ago, and who have furnished the world with the most phenomenal chapter in the history of population, it cannot be said to be very widespread in Britain. Our ideas about them are broad, often vague. Probably it is true that they know more about us than we of them. Of the real modern, mighty machine of the Republic—for the close observer will find the impression of a machine remaining upon his mind—comparatively little is known by the bulk of the stay-at-home Britishers.

The United States is a new creation. Even the sailing of those frail caravels of Columbus is so recent, relatively, in the history of the world, that we might excusably marvel that the geographical obsession of the European mariner of 1492 did not earlier occur. Separating the civilizations of Europe and Asia, westwardly, roared two mighty oceans, and the unknown double continent which lay between them had never been trodden by the foot of the white man, with the exception of the prehistoric immigrants from Asia or Egypt, and a forgotten Scandinavian sailor; and it remained for the last decade of the fifteenth century—separated from us so little by time, so greatly by events—to transplant the germ of the 90,000,000 people of the United States of to-day, with whom we are to dwell in these pages. Farthest West they have penetrated now, to where the continent of North America touches the fringe of Asia—the busy conti-

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nent shared in friendly rivalry by Britain's Canadian empire.

We should be unworthy chroniclers if we did not approach so great a theme in the spirit of the evolutionist. We can have no concern but to regard the American people as they are, without constraints or jealousies, and to hope to draw an impartial picture of the great scene-shifting of the developing world, which Nature is carrying on in the United States.

Our first considerations are, of course, spatial ones: how large is the country and how does it lie? The 90,000,000 of American people are, great as their numbers seem, but a film of humanity stretched over a continent nearly 3,000 miles wide, from the Atlantic to the Pacific, and 2,000 miles long, from Canada to Mexico, forming the largest territorial unit in America.¹ The most striking condition which presents itself to us is that the country embodies an enormous belt of land along the earth's temperate zone; that zone which has brought to being the potent civilized races of today. It is to this fact that the Americans owe their wealth and civilization; following on the circumstance of their heritage of the Anglo-Saxon spirit and social system. This is why the United States is a "white man's country" of such pronounced leadership. The natural wealth existing in this zone, of things necessary to man's development—corn, iron, coal, oil, timber, cotton, wool,

¹Except Canada which is somewhat greater in area but with a fraction of its population.

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cattle—is not exceeded by any area upon the globe, unless, in some respects, its northern neighbour, Canada, may equal or surpass it, in the future. Thus, the United States is, at the beginning of the twentieth century, the largest and most prosperous single geographical unit on the globe; a mighty entity, potent for good or evil in the development of the world.

The North American continent is one of those which have been termed circumpolar continents: that is, continents so situated upon the globe—Asia, Europe and North America—that their broader extremities lie around the north Polar regions. But, as Asia and Europe are one, for Europe is but the fringe of Asia, we have only an Old and a New World to consider. Even the edges of these interlock, almost, in Pacific and Arctic waters at Bering Strait; and although America and Europe are widely separated on the Atlantic side, it is to be recollected nevertheless, that a vessel can sail from the northern isles of Britain via Iceland, Greenland, and Labrador, and reach America with a greatest width of landless sea of only 500 miles. A swift modern steamship, following the route, could pass from continent to continent without being out of sight of land for more than twelve hours. Perhaps this geographical condition will take important place in future means of communication; and a new highway, whether aqueous, whether aerial, come to being in the north. Yet so inhospitable are the cold and sterile northern regions that it remained for modern man to reach the one

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continent from the other across the thousands of miles of intervening open ocean to the south, in the same way that we reach them to-day.

Similarly did the inclement northern regions on the Pacific militate against the modern discovery of America from Asia, or the emigration in known time, of man from Asia to America across the few miles of Bering Strait, where a vessel may navigate without losing sight of land at all. As regards pre-historic times we are constrained to believe that men did pass from Asia to America that way, bearing with them the germs of civilized government and the stone-shaping arts; and that they founded the civilization of the Aztecs, Incas and others. Possibly this supposed peopling of America from Asia was influenced by climate to some extent, for, in similar latitudes, the North Pacific coast of America, thanks to the warm Asiatic ocean currents, is much milder than the frigid North Atlantic coast. However, be it as may, we see that, notwithstanding the proximity of America both to Asia and Europe in their boreal extremities, the Old and the New Worlds remained unknown to each other until a mere yesterday; and it was easier for man, even then, to discover the New World by travelling across the broad seas of low latitudes rather than by their approaching polar shores.

As we have observed, the rapid growth and great prosperity of the United States is mainly due to geographical causes. Nature has disposed land and water in such a way that the one is intersected by the other under conditions of advantageous navi-

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gability ; whilst a vast series of broad fertile valleys, with intervening mineral-bearing mountain ranges, assure the abundant supply of that raw material which has made the country a premier manufacturing nation. Yet another main principle of the economic stability of America lies in the range and variety of its climate. Huge districts of scanty rainfall are balanced by equally extensive regions of normal humidity ; and what one does not produce the other may ; so that losses and disasters to the agricultural community are more or less local and offset by gains elsewhere : a condition scarcely encountered in a smaller country such as Britain. The general crops upon which the subsistence of the people depends, as well as their raw materials, are never jeopardized in their entirety by famine or drought, and this uniform fruitfulness and natural compensation has been one of the causes of the extremely rapid growth of the wealth and population of the country, especially during its infancy. Thus the United States, dowered as it is by nature, cannot fail, short of sheer anarchy, to be a prosperous land ; and when times of depression occur they are the result of man's questionable financial acts, rather than of Nature's causes. In a general sense, moreover, the climate of the different parts of the United States embodies conditions so similar to the varying climates of Europe, which provided the New World with its ancestry of man, animals, and principal plants ; that adaptation to environment by these was easy, and development was practically only an extension of European conditions in

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untrammelled surroundings. Thus men, animals and plants of European origin, from Englishmen to horses and cows, and from wheat to oranges, flourish as well as in the lands of their origin.

The Americans have become a great people; great in numbers, and—except in some grave and deep-seated matters—great as regards progress and civilization. What is it that has given them the impulse to profit by their rich environment, and make them so? Why should a handful of people, sorrowful immigrants from Europe who, three centuries ago, found themselves outcasts in an unknown savage wilderness in an unknown hemisphere, have grown to be one of the most potent commercial units in the world? There are other vast continents—Asia and Africa—why have they not shown such phenomenal development in this short period since the time of Columbus and the *Mayflower*? The answer is plain. Added to the advantageous environment of a great temperate land, full of natural riches, has been the British or Anglo-Saxon spirit; the spirit of a “chosen people” as regards progress, justice and ingenuity, who indeed seem to have been bidden to “inherit the earth”. Land and natural resources alone cannot make a people great, else Spanish-America might long ago have led the van of New World progress. Mexico and Peru were pouring forth their riches 100 years before the *Mayflower* sailed. It was the soul of the British race. But the soul of Britain needed something more to make it “American,” and Nature supplied this something

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of untrammelled environment ; whilst Fate gave it the fillip of independence.

It will early occur to us, in our travels in the New World, that the United States has arrogated to herself the term "America," and the name "Americans" to her people. The big Republic has, of course, no exclusive right to this nomenclature ; it belongs equally to the Canadians, Mexicans, Argentines, Brazilians, Peruvians, Chileans, etc., of the other countries of the two continents. Indeed, the Latin-Americans do not speak of their northern neighbours of the United States generally as "Americans," but as "Norteamericanos," or North Americans, when they do not employ the term "Yanquis," a friendly designation in common use. However, the people of the United States have won the right to their name, and no one is likely to dispute it. They have indeed, adopted it officially, and instructed their foreign representatives to use it.

The United States, having grown to be a great people and political entity, remain so, notwithstanding topographical conditions which in more primitive circumstances might have made for separation. Why does the Republic remain an entity ; and is it likely always to remain so ? It keeps together first, because it has but one language and set of principal laws ; and secondly, because all other ideas are dominated by the money-getting principle, which of itself is an active agent against internal political dissension. As regards its language, it is scarcely to be conceived that the numerous com-

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munities of which the Republic is formed—British, German, Scandinavians, Italians and others—embodying both Teutonic and Latin peoples, could have hung together if it were not for the assimilative power of English, which, almost in the lapse of a single generation, turns the heterogeneous immigrants of many races into real American citizens. It is true that, in some cases, these peoples strive to maintain their own tongues, as we shall see later, but it is impossible. The common Anglo-Saxon scorn—even when unexpressed—for other languages, alone renders it impossible to be an American citizen without speaking English: and the powerful, if indefinable force of the new nationalism permeates and conquers absolutely. In the same sense that the Englishman has always considered—and doubtless ever will consider—himself and his language superior to all other peoples and languages of the world (including the Americans), so does and must the American be cognizant of his own sense of superiority. This is not a hypocritical or vainglorious conceit, but is simply the record of a natural fact. If in the future other peoples develop this spirit and the qualities which give rise to it, then their dominant sway will not be disputed. And, moreover, this spirit carries with it no sense of contempt, nor exercise of oppression, but rather a spirit of help and justice to the less fortunate. Great Britain is the world's money lender and the home of the oppressed; the United States has inherited and exercised to a large extent these attributes of the mother land: her spirit of

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toleration : of "live and let live" which marks out the British people from all others ; their sane love of compromise between man and man, and their indomitable spirit of conquest over Nature. Other nations have too often reversed these conditions : they have confined their conquests to mankind and compromised with nature, to their own and the world's detriment.

Britain to-day is so accustomed to regard herself as the greatest colonizing nation in the world—which of course she is ; and the undisputed owner of the greatest land areas in the world for one Empire—which she is, also ; that Englishmen are liable to forget that even 150 years after the discovery of America, Britain was a dotard and a laggard in the race for possession of the great continent of the New World. So poor was her sense of the value of these vast regions that only a fringe at the Atlantic coast fell to her ownership. The Spanish, the French and the Dutch were far more active. South America, and great parts of North America fell to the first ; the huge regions of the St. Lawrence to the second : whilst the third took possession of the region along the Hudson River. Indeed, at the beginning of the seventeenth century, most of the eligible sites for Colonial expansion seemed to have been acquired, and the wonderful mines of Peru and Mexico were yielding gold and silver for the coffers of Spain. But—and let us mark the point—the great "luck" or destiny of Britain was made manifest here. If the people of Britain had been the "seed of Abraham" which should "inherit

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the earth ”¹ they could scarcely have acquired more favourable oversea possessions. The silver of Peru and the spices of the East, and all that was won by fevered argosies or flourish of conquistadorial sword was to prove of relatively little value by the side of the limitless possibilities of wheat fields, pine forests, fisheries and coal and iron mines which the seemingly cold and inhospitable land of North America gave them. It was destiny, or luck, rather than enterprise or character which gave Britain a New England, a Newfoundland, and a Virginia. In justice to the enterprise of Britain, moreover, it must be recollected that strong causes operated against colonial expansion. Fear of a powerful Spain and the Pope were potent factors. But after the destruction of the Armada, and the rise of religious dissent, both Spain and the Pope ceased to be deterrent to civilization and colonization.

To turn now to a brief survey of history. In the New World's discovery we must not overlook the more obscure crossings of the Atlantic by hardy Northmen prior to Columbus. In 870, we are told by the historians, Iceland was discovered by the Northmen ; Iceland is more than half way on the road to Greenland, which was discovered by another Northman six years later, and dowered with a first colony by Eric the Red, in 983. The son of this very early European voyager, we are told, whose name was Leif, discovered North America in the year 1000. Then passed nearly 500 empty years, until the great Columbus himself, in 1492, passed

¹ As the British Israelite Association would have us believe.

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his own horizon of doubts and fears and found the New World beyond it, and the Cabots in 1497, and Amerigo Vespucci in 1499 carried on the great work which a geographical obsession had begun, whilst in 1507 the New World was first called "America".

No apology need be offered for the following condensed calendar of dates and events in the history of the New World. The great dots and dashes on the scroll of America's time must be considered, even if so briefly, in an evolutionist survey such as we are venturing upon.

<sup>Un-
known.</sup> Prehistoric immigration from Asia or Egypt of civilized peoples, via Bering Strait.

A.D.

- 870. Discovery of Iceland by the Northmen.
- 876. Discovery of Greenland by the Northmen.
- 983. First colony in the New World implanted by Eric the Red, in Greenland.
- 1467. Reported voyage of Columbus to Iceland.
- 1492. Columbus discovers the New World.
- 1497. The Cabots discover North America.
- 1498. Columbus discovers South America.
- 1499. Amerigo Vespucci voyages to the New World.
- 1500. First Portuguese Expedition.
- 1506. First French Expedition.
- 1507. The New World first called "America".
- 1513. Balboa discovers the Pacific Ocean.
- 1519. Cortes begins the Conquest of Mexico.
- 1521. Magellan enters and names the Pacific Ocean, and sails across it.
- 1522. Pizarro begins the Conquest of Peru.
- 1535. The French reach Montreal.
- 1539. The Colorado River discovered by Spanish navigators.
- 1541. The Mississippi discovered by Spanish navigators.

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A.D.

- 1578. Drake explores the Pacific Coast of North America and calls it New Albion.
- 1587. Sir Walter Raleigh's Colony founded.
- 1606. James I grants charters to Virginia companies.
- 1608. French Settlement in Quebec.
- 1609. The Englishman Hudson discovers the Hudson River and New York Bay.
- 1614. The Dutch erect a fort at Manhattan.
- 1620. The landing of the Pilgrim Fathers.
- 1622. Iron first made in America.
- 1623. Dutch Settlement in New York.
- 1629. Charles I grants a charter to the Massachusetts Bay Company.
- 1630. Earl of Warwick is granted the Colony of Connecticut.
- 1632. Charles I grants Maryland to Lord Baltimore.
- 1636. Harvard College founded.
- 1638. Puritan Colony of New Haven founded.
- 1639. First printing press established.
- 1645. Slave trade between New England and West Africa begun direct.
- 1647. First execution for witchcraft in America.
- 1664. Surrender of Dutch America to the English.
- 1670. Hudson Bay Company formed by grant from Charles II to Prince Rupert.
- 1682. Penn founds Pennsylvania.
- 1689. France declares war against England.
- 1689. Total population of the English Colonies estimated at 200,000.
- 1700. Yale College founded; and first public library in America instituted.
- 1702. England declares war against France and Spain.
- 1713. Peace of Utrecht signed, by which France cedes to England the Hudson Bay territories and Newfoundland.
- 1741. Bering Strait discovered.
- 1752. Franklin experiments with electricity.
- 1755. England declares war against France.
- 1759. Surrender of Quebec to Wolfe.

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A.D.

- 1764. British Parliament passes Stamp Act.
- 1770. Total population of Colonies 2,312,000.
- 1773. The tea-shipments.
- 1775. Washington takes command of the Colonial forces.
- 1776. Boston evacuated by Lord Howe ; and Declaration of Independence.
- 1776. San Francisco founded by Spanish Mission. Repulse of Americans by British at Long Island.
- 1777. The Stars and Stripes adopted ; surrender of Burgoyne with 6,000 British troops.
- 1781. Surrender of Cornwallis with 7,000 British.
- 1783. British acknowledge independence and evacuate New York City.
- 1789. First National Congress ; first tariff laws ; first president—Washington.
- 1790. Population four millions.
- 1791. Anthracite coal discovered.
- 1793. First fugitive-slave law.
- 1794. Beginning of U.S. Navy.
- 1798. Commercial relation with France suspended.
- 1800. Population 5,300,000
- 1803. Purchase of Louisiana.
- 1804. First settlement at Chicago ; Lewis and Clarke expedition to the Pacific Coast.
- 1807. First trip of Fulton's steamboat.
- 1810. Population 7,250,000.
- 1812. The United States declares war against Great Britain.
- 1819. The "Savannah" steamship crosses the Atlantic.
- 1820. Population 9,600,000.
- 1826. First railroad built.
- 1830. Population 12,900,000.
- 1835. The revolver invented by Colt.
- 1839. Failure of the United States Bank ; first photograph taken.
- 1840. First Cunard steamer reaches Boston. Population 17,000,000.
- 1844. First telegram sent by Morse.
- 1846. War against Mexico ; Mormon City of Utah established.



WASHINGTON'S ANCESTRAL HOME IN ENGLAND, MANOR HOUSE, SULWAY. (ON THE LINE OF THE
GREAT CENTRAL RAILWAY)

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A PRELIMINARY GLANCE

A.D.

- 1848. Gold discovered in California.
- 1850. Population 22,000,000.
- 1851. New York and Erie and Hudson River Railroads finished.
- 1854. New York and London Telegraph Company founded.
- 1855. Panama railroad completed.
- 1857. Financial crisis.
- 1858. Successful opening of Atlantic cable.
- 1860. Population 31,500,000.
- 1861. First shot of the Civil War: Secession of various States;
Lincoln President: transcontinental telegraph line to
San Francisco completed: Cash payments suspended
by New York and other banks.
- 1862. Merrimac-Monitor naval fight.
- 1863. Emancipation proclaimed.
- 1864. Value of a gold dollar in New York City quoted at
\$2·85.
- 1865. Lincoln assassinated.
- 1866. End of the rebellion.
- 1867. Second Atlantic cable completed. United States
acquires Alaska.
- 1869. First transcontinental railroad completed.
- 1870. Population 38,500,000.
- 1878. Edison invents electric lighting.
- 1881. Garfield assassinated.
- 1890. Population 62,700,000.
- 1900. Population 75,000,000.
- 1901. McKinley assassinated.
- 1910. Population 90,000,000. Ex-President Roosevelt's European
Pilgrimage.

Thus we see how, in the four and a quarter centuries since America was first dreamed of by modern man, the European peoples disputed the possession of the Northern Continent; and we mark how, since the beginning of the life of the Republic, the population marvellously increased. From 2,750,000 of people at the time of throw-

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ing overboard the Boston tea-chests in 1770 (with all that that act of jettisoning conveyed) to nearly ten millions half a century afterwards, in 1820 ; and to twenty-two millions in 1850 and ninety millions in 1910. We see how great mechanical invention and development of industries pressed forward, alternating with financial panics, wars, (and the occasional assassination of presidents) the whole forming a phenomenal advance.

Perhaps the first thought of the Englishman who enters the United States, or considers its condition, might well be one of regret that the Republic does not form part of his own vast Empire. But, to the thoughtful mind, this sentiment will not abide long. It will soon be replaced by that of a philosophical acceptance of things as they are. For the United States as an independent entity has probably been of greater value to civilization than if it had remained a dependency of Britain. Even the haste and bitterness with which the early colonists flung off the British yoke seems to have been part of the plan of nature rather than the acts of man ; for the causes which brought it about might well have been borne up against. Probably the Americans' material development would have been much less rapid and useful under British rule ; probably her moral code would have been superior ; possibly she would have been saved some of her unlovely phases both of the past and the present ; but upon all these matters it is almost idle to speculate, and certainly is not profitable.

A PRELIMINARY GLANCE

These considerations, however, inevitably bring us to ask about the civilization of America. How shall we of Britain judge it? America viewed philosophically, is simply the custodian of a great new world in which humanity, transplanted thither, might have progressed a stage towards universal justice and happiness. America was an isolated star (to which man might indeed have "hitched his wagon" in the words of one of her own poets), or a new sphere which might have become a splendid dwelling place for an improved race of men. It might have been a federation of man which should have taken upon itself "to comfort and help the weak-hearted, to raise up them that fall, and finally to beat down" the Satan of poverty, injustice and dishonesty under their feet! But it is not so. Men did but scramble there from wicked Europe and Asia across the intervening seas, and quickly extinguished any Utopian spark of *Mayflower* origin. Indeed, as to religion, the Pilgrim Fathers themselves did but set up intolerance after the manner of that from which they had escaped in their old home; whilst the bloody Spaniard and the grasping Briton did but hurry thither; and his descendants have but perpetuated and exaggerated the defects of the old hopeless world of their forefathers. For if we examine the American civilization of to-day we shall be forced—much against our ideals—to confess that, in its present stage, it has not improved upon the civilization of Europe; whilst, as regards some of its attributes, it appears distinctly to have retrograded. The Britisher is not pharisaical in his

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judgment of other peoples; he knows that grave defects underlie the social life of his own country, but he can often congratulate himself that England is better than America, in most phases of social and political life, although in doing so he will not forget that she is older and wiser. Nevertheless, the fact remains that America has had a unique opportunity, which no other nation has ever possessed, for the making of a new civilization. The British attitude towards America might be summed up, in modern vernacular, in a species of brotherly reproach: "I say, old fellow, you are all right, but you have got some rotten customs, and it is time to buck up and get rid of them". The details of these "rotten customs" we shall consider in the following pages, not from any delight in a catalogue of iniquity, but as a part of American life, such as we are endeavouring to depict in these chronicles. Among them we shall find such insidious terms as "Tammany," "graft," "trusts," "unwritten laws," "lynchings," "train and bank-holding-up," financial and political corruption, and others of those social phenomenon of American life whose very vocabulary was invented in the New World, and which, stripped of all apology, mainly come under the unvarnished nomenclature of robbery and murder.

What is the remedy for these conditions? Probably they will have to work themselves out; as in other communities. But, as to the frequent breaking of the law in murder and robbery, these arise largely from the looseness of the law. It might not seem advisable to suggest that a reversion

A PRELIMINARY GLANCE

to the punishments of the Middle Ages should be made in the United States, yet possibly a course of summary beheading, public chastisement at the cart's tail, the stocks, and other matters, would have a healthy effect on the body politic ! Hanging for sheep-stealing and capital punishment generally, in England long ago, seems to us cruel now, but it must be recollected that the comparative honesty of the British people has been brought about by the chastening hand, in some respects, of mediaeval severity.

On the other hand there is a great deal in the American character which commands British admiration, especially that spirit which stands defiantly upon its own base, resting its claim upon the bed-rock of human nature : disdaining circumstance and carving its way in spite of tradition or privilege. The spirit of American independence, when it is not clouded by the savage attributes which have arisen with it, is one which makes the heart beat high—small wonder that it should have nerved, and will nerve, legions in its defence, or that all who bear the name of American, rejoice in it. The spirit of real Americanism binds together a nation great, potent, and intrinsically good. That is the spirit which we of Britain seek to know in our American kinsmen, and which we would fain travel Farthest West to contemplate.

CHAPTER II

TOPOGRAPHICAL : EAST AND SOUTH

Boundaries—Extent—Great natural features—The Atlantic Coast—The New England Region—The Eastern Central Region—The Virginia Region—The Florida Region—Their people, products, natural features, agriculture, resources, hydrography, minerals

IN this and the following chapter it will be our purpose to gain a succinct idea of the form and extent of the United States, both physically and politically.

The republic occupies the lower half of the North American Continent, except the tapering portion which forms its southern neighbour, the Republic of Mexico. The upper portion of the continent is the Dominion of Canada, a territory still larger than the vast area of the United States, but much less developed. The United States stretches across the whole continent from the Atlantic to the Pacific Oceans, over 58° of longitude or from near 67° to 125° west of Greenwich, excluding Alaska. This broad land is crossed by trunk lines of railway, some of which are several thousands of miles in length. The frontier with Canada is formed, on the Atlantic side, by land lines at the east and south of the great St. Lawrence River,

TOPOGRAPHICAL: EAST AND SOUTH

as far as the 45th parallel. Thence it follows the line of the river until it reaches the Great Lakes—Ontario, Erie, Huron and Superior—whose waters it intersects longitudinally. Leaving these great inland seas the international boundary follows an irregular course for some distance until near the 95th meridian, or about half-way across the continent, not far from Winnipeg. Here it picks up and follows, until it reaches the Pacific coast, the imaginary boundary formed by the 49th parallel of latitude. This great arc boundary is about 1,300 miles long. The southern boundary of the United States is formed by the Rio Grande, flowing into the Gulf of Mexico; when near El Paso in Texas it follows a series of land lines until it reaches the Colorado River, and thence goes to the Pacific coast. South of this frontier is the Republic of Mexico.

Journeying from east to west across this enormous country, we shall encounter extremely varied conditions of landscape and climate. The great natural features must be borne in mind. Leaving the Atlantic coast and proceeding inland for some 200 miles, we come to the eastern mountain system, formed by the roughly parallel ranges of the Appalachian and Alleghany Mountains, extending in a north-easterly direction parallel with the coast for some 800 miles. Having passed this barrier we enter upon the region of the Mississippi River and its tributaries. This vast territory extends from the Appalachian mountain system across the greater portion of the continent to its western divide—the

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Rocky Mountains. The Mississippi runs with a general direction from north to south, from near the Canadian border and the lakes of Winnipeg and the water-parting of the Arctic and Gulf slopes, for nearly 2,000 miles to its mouth in the Gulf of Mexico, near New Orleans. From this main stream numerous great affluents, among them the Missouri, Ohio, and others, spread on either hand towards their respective water-partings of the Alleghanies or the Rockies. Leaving this mighty Mississippi valley, which is more than 1,500 miles wide, we ascend and cross the Rocky Mountains, and reach the broad, semi-arid region known as the Great Basin. This is drained by the affluents of the Columbia River in the north, and by the Colorado River in the south, whilst portions of it have no hydrographic outlet, being closed basins. Crossing this largely desert region, some 700 miles wide, we reach the Sierra Nevadas and the coast ranges of California and Oregon, with their long valleys drained by the San Joaquin and Columbia Rivers. Crossing these we reach the Pacific coast.

We shall now examine the country more in detail, dividing it, for this purpose, into various natural topographical regions.¹

The *New England region* or district lies immediately south of the Canadian provinces of New Brunswick and Quebec, which, themselves, lie partly on the south-eastern side of the St. Lawrence. It includes the States of Maine, New Hampshire,

¹The method adopted by American geographies: see "The United States of America," Shaler.



LOOKING UP THE HUDSON RIVER FROM WEST POINT

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Vermont, Massachusetts, and Connecticut. Its eastern side forms the Atlantic seaboard, with an indented coast of fiord-like character, possessing deep-water inlets and excellent harbours. The valley of the Hudson, running north and south, defines this region on the west, together with the Berkshire Hills, Adirondacks, and the Green mountains. The famous Hudson is not a river but a tidal fiord, running inland from the angle of the coast formed between Connecticut and New Jersey, with Long Island and Manhattan Island at its mouth, and the great city of New York. Between the Hudson and the coast is the fertile Connecticut valley and its river. Between this valley and the coast, the region is a healthy and generally fertile one. It was among the first portions of New England to become the home of the white man; and more than two centuries of occupation have proved it to be one of the most favourable parts of North America for human habitation. The combination of fertile littoral with good harbours due to rocky coasts, is one which has influenced the prosperity of the New England states in marked degree.

The climate of this region varies much; the north and south trend of its mountain permits exposure to the polar winds, with an intense cold in winter, in the northern part. Below Cape Cod, however, where the waters of the Gulf stream approach that promontory, the summers are much longer and warmer, and the winter temperature rarely reaches zero F. The northern part of Maine is too cold for the growth of maize, but the small grains

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and root-crops come to perfection. Part of this state is covered with splendid pine forests, interspersed with lakes linked together by natural channels, and its configuration, together with the character of its soil, bids fair to preserve it as a field of permanent timber-supply. The plains of the Connecticut, on the other hand, are subject to milder conditions, which permit the development of all the northern products: and even tobacco forms one of the most valuable of its harvests. The climate is well suited to the Anglo-Saxon people who settled upon it, and is generally free from malarial and other diseases. The natural water supply is among the best on the Continent. As to the mineral resources of this region these which are industrially profitable are principally building stones, granites, marbles, slates and soapstones in their respective districts. A hard anthracite abounds in the coal fields of Narraganset and Rhode Island, whilst iron and copper exist and have been worked, but have given place to the more important fields of Pennsylvania and Lake Superior. New England, as its name implies, was peopled from Britain. The essentially British character of the people of the region began to be modified somewhat by immigration from Europe and the French-Canadian regions in the middle of last century. The names of many principal places show their British origin, and have indeed been applied wholesale from the British Isles.

The *Eastern Central region* embodies the States of New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania and

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Delaware. The last is a very small state lying upon the coast to the south of New Jersey, which is also a littoral state. Pennsylvania lies upon and across the Appalachian Mountain system, whilst New York State borders upon the St. Lawrence River and the great lakes—Ontario and Erie. The Appalachian Mountain system in this part of its course does not reach great elevations—the highest points being in the district of the Catskills, upon the immediate west of the Hudson, rising to about 4,000 feet above sea-level. North of this the mountain system declines and dies out along the line of the Mohawk River, and beyond is the singular mountain region of the Adirondacks, the oldest orographic system in the United States, greatly antedating the Alleghanies. Another ancient mountain chain, the Blue Ridge, lies in Eastern Pennsylvania, and appears from New Hampshire to Northern Alabama, a thousand miles apart. The elevation due to this mountain system gives rise to a cold climate over a considerable portion of the region, but the Atlantic lowlands of Eastern Pennsylvania and the littoral States of New Jersey and Delaware enjoy an admirable climate, and form one of the principal fruit-producing regions of the northern part of the United States. The Hudson, Mohawk and other valleys are very fertile, and in marked contrast with the sterile heights which bound them. The district of the Great Lakes, which forms the northern part of this field, is also fertile although with a more rigorous climate, tempered however by the presence

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of the lakes. Formerly this region was largely covered with primeval forests of pines, firs, and hemlock, but the only remaining portions of these once noble Appalachian woods are the elevated tableland of the Adirondacks, and Western Pennsylvania. A wide range of mineral products is found in this region, iron, coal, petroleum, nickel and salt taking rank. The coal and petroleum fields of Pennsylvania, the natural gas and the iron, have rendered the State famous at home and abroad. Nature's resources have been prodigal here: coal is more plentifully spread over the region than anywhere else in the world, and great manufacturing cities, vast railway systems, and multi-millionaires, are the terms into which man has translated all this great natural wealth.

This fine region, however, contains but one first-class harbour: that of New York, for the mouth of the Hudson is the southernmost of the rock-ports of the Atlantic coast. In and out of this great fiord, a hundred miles long, the tide passes, scouring its mouth to the necessary depth for great ships. South of New York the geological formation of the coast line is such that the harbours are shallow and subject to silting up.

This region of the Eastern Central States, unlike New England, has been peopled by a diverse population. The first settlers in New York were from Holland, Swedes followed them into Delaware and New Jersey, Germans into Central Pennsylvania; some Huguenots settled on the Hudson, and the English immigrants of Penn in



VIEW IN THE MOHAWK VALLEY, SHOWING FOUR MEANS OF TRANSPORT : RAILWAY, RIVER, ROAD, AND CANAL
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the Eastern part of the state which bears his name. Moreover, New York being the great entry port for immigrants from Europe, and Philadelphia, Delaware, being also a great landing-place for foreigners, this original diversity has augmented rather than diminished; and to-day the various peoples who inhabit the region speak more than twenty different languages and dialects, whilst the original German has been maintained for two centuries and has now become non-intelligible to the educated German of the Fatherland. Thus, whilst all these people have been influenced by the political and social methods of the English, there is still a remarkable lack of coherence among them. This is a serious factor; and the great influx of lower-class immigrants from Europe other than Britain almost constitutes a menace to social stability. The terrible strike-riots which have become so marked a feature of industrial life in this part of the United States of recent years, is, to some extent, an outcome of these conditions. Time, however, in conjunction with the great natural wealth of the region will possibly weld together these warring elements.

The *Virginia Region* includes the States of Virginia, Maryland, North and South Carolina and Georgia; lying partly upon the Atlantic seaboard, and thence upon the Appalachian highlands. A considerable difference of elevation is encountered in this region, which from the Atlantic lowlands rises to 6,000 and 7,000 feet in the mountainous district, with a corresponding variation of climate. Warm on the coast, a semi-tropical aspect

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as regards vegetation is encountered in the southern part; the palmetto growing there, and certain sub-tropical fruits, such as oranges and figs, as far north as North Carolina (latitude 36°): whilst in South Carolina some of the finest class of cotton is produced. The coast region is often flat, with extensive swamps covered with a dense growth of reeds and other vegetations, and in the northern part large shallow bays occur, such as that of the Chesapeake. The region in the upland country of the Blue Ridge mountains is considered the most beautiful from a scenic point of view in the whole of the United States, although, of course, not the most stupendous. The broad valley between this range and the Alleghanies constitutes the finest tract of land in point of climate and agricultural conditions in the whole of the Appalachian Mountain district, with so wide a range of products as is not surpassed anywhere in the Republic. On the whole, however, the region of the Alleghany Mountains—a “new” range in a geological sense—is relatively infertile. The richest soils of this region are the reclaimed cane-swamps of the coast, which have proved exceptionally fertile. Of minerals the coal of the mountain district is the most valuable; and there are some deposits of iron and copper; whilst gold mining was at one time an industry of some importance, but became unprofitable after the abolition of slavery, with its cheap labour.

The region, whilst not unhealthy, is exposed to malaria on the coast, and yellow fever has at

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times been a dreaded scourge of the coast towns. As to its population, the historic names borne by the States and towns indicate the British origin. Vigorous and enterprising settlers from the rural parts of the mother country first occupied the land; but an element of German and Swiss brought in by contractors for the purposes of colonization did not give rise to a progressive people, and these immigrants of Eastern North Carolina have shown little vigour or progress, being in much contrast to the British stock in the district of Chesapeake Bay, which has produced many men of marked national fame. There exists then, in this region, a potent object lesson in the results of voluntary and forced colonization. In South Carolina and Georgia both the British and the Huguenot settlers have produced a people of excellent characteristics, culture accompanying energy and thrift—conditions not always encountered together in the United States. A valuable addition was made to the people of this region by the Scotch and Irish in the time of the Stuart pretenders; and a Teutonic element also came in from Pennsylvania and elsewhere. The negro population increases in ratio southwardly from Maryland, but is mainly confined to the coast, as it does not flourish in the highlands. Between Chesapeake Bay and the Savannah River it was that the main importation of African slaves was made. As to the stamina of the British-descended people of this region the stress of the civil war showed that they had lost none of their original qualities of tenacity and vigour.

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The *Florida region* embraces the singular peninsula of that name, with the "keys" or islands off its coast, forming the southernmost point of the United States. Florida is about 500 miles long; it consists topographically of the summit of a great ridge, rising to an elevation of 300 feet above sea-level; a ridge whose greatest area is submerged in the Gulf of Mexico. It forms the most tropical and most individualized part of the whole of the United States. Geologically, a considerable part of this area consists of a limestone formation with curious underground channels and springs perforating the strata; a condition which corresponds with the equally singular Peninsula of Yucatan in Mexico,¹ the other extremity of the horseshoe bend of the shore of the Mexican Gulf. Some of these subterranean land waters of Florida emerge in the sea, off the coast, with considerable velocity as submarine springs, flowing upwards with a force sufficient to sweep boats away from their vicinity. The climate of the peninsula is almost tropical, due to the southern position, low elevation, and the warm waters which bathe the coast at the west, south and east. Frosts, however, occasionally damage the orange crops in the northern districts, but are extremely rare in the south. The heat, moreover, is tempered by the presence of the sea. The rainfall supplies abundant moisture, and irrigation is not necessary for the crops. These latter consist very largely of fruits, both tropical and sub-tropical; the climate and soil both being exceptionally favourable: the citrus fruits especially, and the pineapple,

¹ See my "Mexico".

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flourishing with a vigorous growth. The cocoanut palm also develops on the southern coast, whilst as to the oranges they have earned a reputation of being amongst the best in the world. Of recent years, however, the remarkable development of orange-growing in California has somewhat overshadowed Florida, although mainly as to quantity rather than quality. The greater part of the southern region of the peninsula consists of extremely low-lying lands, whose small eminences rise to only a few feet above sea-level, and here great swamps extend, occupying an area of some 28,000 square miles. Here are the Everglades. The interior consists topographically of sandy ridges and innumerable lakes, great and small, interspersed with swamp areas; whilst the humidity of the climate, added to the force of the sun, stimulates a profuse growth of vegetation. There are among the natural resources of Florida great areas of rock, composed principally of lime phosphate, deposits of a natural fertilizer which may be of much economic value.

The people of Florida have come partly from the earlier settlers on the coast, but mainly from those from the north; whites from the original non-slaveholding part of the United States occupying it in a greater degree than in any other southern state. In addition to these people of British descent, there is a considerable number of inhabitants of Spanish origin, descendants of colonists of the two centuries of the Spanish regime. Many of these came from Cuba, which island lies to the south of the peninsula. There are other inhabitants whose ancestors come from Minorca, whilst

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a numerous remnant of the Seminole Indians still inhabit the region of the Everglades, to which place they escaped at the time of the deportation of the Florida aborigines to Indian territory. As to the negro element, this is relatively small, much less than in any of the lowland regions of the original slave-holding States. The future of Florida lies probably much in its climate, which may be looked upon as forming a winter refuge for the people of the northern states who would escape the rigorous conditions of their own environment.

The regions we have traversed so far are, it will be seen, those which lie principally along the Atlantic Ocean, or which are bounded on the west by the Eastern Mountain system and the lakes. They form but a relatively small strip of the continent, but they have been of the greatest importance in the history of America. Beyond them the limitless regions extending westward were long those of pioneer romance, but civilization has moved far afield, and they now contain the greatest industrial centres of population of the United States.

CHAPTER III

TOPOGRAPHICAL : SOUTH AND WEST

Region of the Ohio Valley—The Region of the Great Lakes—
The Mexican Gulf Region—The Upper Mississippi Region—
The Arkansas Region—The Lower Missouri Region—The
Upper Missouri Region—The Cordillera Region—People,
resources, products, natural features, minerals, agriculture,
hydrography—The Pacific Coast

To the west of the territory described in the foregoing chapter, we come to a series of states which may be grouped as the *region of the Ohio Valley*, drained by the river of that name. To the east and south this basin of the Ohio, is defined by the Appalachian mountains and its spurs; to the north by the water-parting of the Great Lakes, whilst to the west it lies open to the Mississippi. The general elevation is about 1,000 feet above sea level, with a large part rising to 2,000 feet. No other fluvial region of the United States of equal area has such favourable conditions of fertile soil and mineral-bearing rocks, placed for man's ready use, as this basin of the Ohio: and naturally it has become the centre of great industrial development and a corresponding civilization. The states included in this division are, in their major portion, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, West

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Virginia, Kentucky, Tennessee, and a part of New York, Virginia, North Carolina, Georgia, and Mississippi. As to the climate of the region the northern part feels the severe cold earlier, whilst the southern part is influenced to a greater mildness by the Gulf of Mexico, the winds from which induce a rainfall which varies from sixty inches in the south to thirty-five in the north. The equable rainfall indeed affords an advantageous condition in the maintaining of the many navigable streams, affluents of the Ohio, and so of the Mississippi. These numerous, important waterways, serving to convey the output of forests, fields, and mines to the market, have an aggregate length of 12,000 miles, and as a fluvial system are only of importance secondary to the Amazon, or the waterways of China.

As regards agriculture, three quarters of the Ohio basin is cultivable. The soils are of very varied quality, and swamps and sandy plains occur in a less degree than in any other part of the continent. In Kentucky and Tennessee are the famous "Blue-grass Regions" so named from the luxuriant growth of grass having a blue blossom which covers the land. This characteristic is partly due to the fertile soil resulting from the underlying silurian limestone, whose extensive fossiliferous formation yields under decay line phosphate as a natural fertilizing agency. The timber resources are important, the trees being principally the deciduous kinds, among which is especially beautiful the tulip tree, rising at times to 100 feet elevation to its first branch. The white oak is another speci-

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men, one of the most valuable of American timbers for construction, which abounds here. One fourth of the Ohio valley, it is calculated, is eminently fitted for forest culture, rather than agriculture, and should be of much economic value in this respect. Of minerals this rich region boasts the two elements, in abundance, of iron ores and fossil fuels, the last-named comprising coal, petroleum and natural gas. The coal is of the bituminous kinds low in ash and sulphur, good for domestic gas-making and coke-making and iron-smelting purposes. Its geological occurrence is such as lends itself to cheap mining: it exists as two great detached fields; the easternmost, or Appalachian field, which includes Pennsylvania, having some 45,000 square miles of coal-bearing formation. The other field is that of western Kentucky and southern Illinois, which are of less value and extent. The great petroleum fields are principally in north-western Pennsylvania and Ohio; the Devonian black shale area which produces it extending over nearly 100,000 square miles.

The population of the Ohio valley is drawn, in great mass, from purely English stock, from the older group of colonial settlements mainly, with a fraction of Pennsylvania Germans. The negro element is smaller, notwithstanding that half the region lies in what were the old slave states. This is due partly to its mountainous character, which was unfitted for the great plantations upon which black labour was mainly employed.

The region of the Great Lakes lies to the north of that just described, and embodies the State of

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Michigan and part of Wisconsin, Illinois, Minnesota, Indiana, Ohio, Pennsylvania and New York, all abutting upon this group of great fresh water seas—Ontario, Erie, Huron, Michigan and Superior. The Canadian province of Ontario, however, contains the major portion of the good land of this region. The lake basin in its geographical and hydrographical conditions, is somewhat remarkable, in that the water-parting of the Red River in the north and the system of the Mississippi in the south is, at certain points, so slightly defined that it is possible to pass from one system to the other by short canoe-portages; whilst a canal or excavation from Lake Michigan's southern extremity would lead the waters into an affluent of the Mississippi, thus uniting, in a sense, the waters of the huge system of the St. Lawrence—to which the lakes belong—with the first-named system. Similarly, at the north, these canoe-portages make access possible from the lake system of the Red River, as mentioned, and to the Hudson Bay system, and so to the Arctic Ocean. However, the streams of this lake region are generally small and navigable only for crafts of a pioneer character. As to the lakes themselves they are only secondary in importance, for inland navigation, to the mighty Mississippi—the Father of Waters—himself.

The agricultural resources of the lake-shore regions are important; cereals, especially maize, fruits, and forage crops abounding. The primeval forests were of excellent character, including white pine, hemlock, and cedar, especially in Michigan.



NIAGARA : THE AMERICAN SIDE

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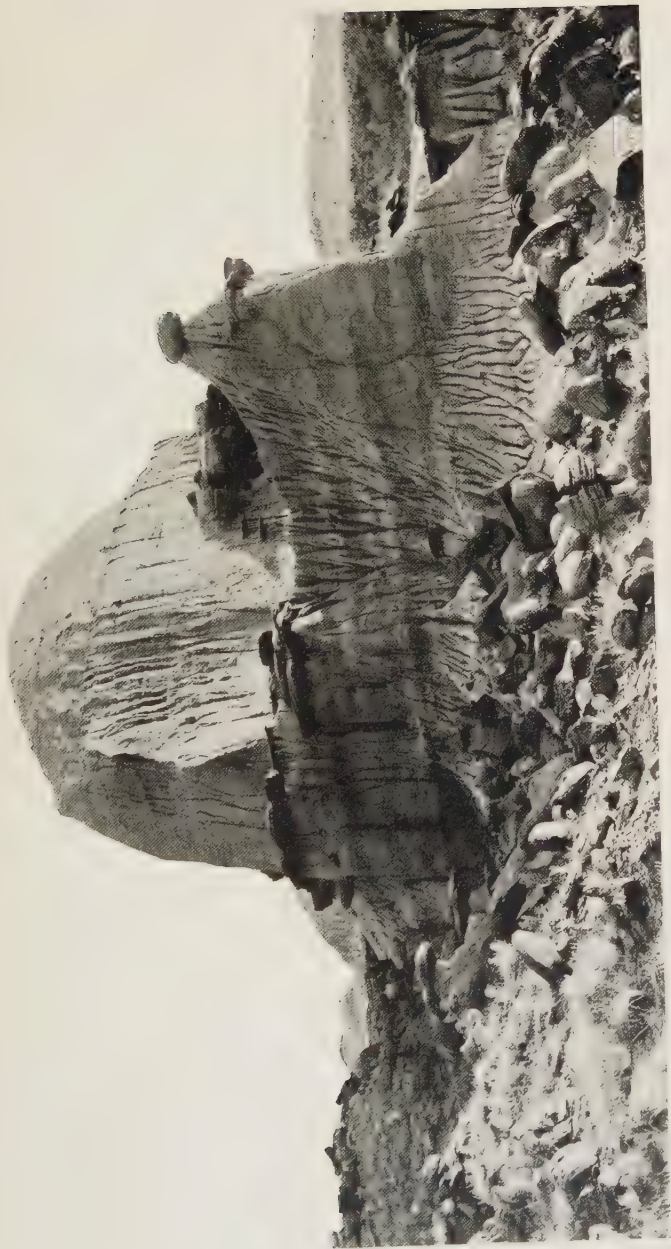
TOPOGRAPHICAL: SOUTH AND WEST

The mineral resources of the region are extremely important, including especially copper and iron; the iron occurring in great profusion and purity. As to the copper, which is the basis of a great industry, the metal has the uncommon quality of occurring in a native state here. In the Lake Superior district it is found in a pebbly conglomerate, and at times in great masses of pure copper, which latter however is a condition rendering extremely laborious the recovery of the metal.

The climate of the region, though extremely rigorous, is healthy, and in winter has never been invaded by yellow fever, whilst malaria is found only in the denser swamps. The people dwelling in this section of the United States are derived mainly from northern Europe. The purest people of English descent are upon the northern shores of Lakes Erie and Ontario—the latter in Canada, where there is also the French element. Scandinavians, Germans, Irish, and others have also come in freely. As to the coloured element, many negroes came in, due to the proximity to Canadian freedom in slave-times, and it is remarkable how these people of tropic origin have endured the frigid climate of this district. This element, however, is relatively small, and the future of the district is well assured by reason of the character of its north European population, its great natural resources and manufacturing facilities of power, fuel, and raw material, and its healthy climate. All these elements have made for stability and prosperity in this region of the Great Lakes.

FARTHEST WEST

The Mexican Gulf region is the next to occupy our attention. This includes western Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, and that part of the enormous State of Texas which lies to the east of the city of Austin. These States, it is seen, all border upon the Mexican Gulf, extending from Florida, across the Mississippi River to the frontier of Mexico: and the region is fairly well distinguished topographically from its neighbour. Much of the littoral district consists of lowlands, which originally formed sea-bottom, and in Texas—as at Galveston—there has been of recent years great loss of life and disaster from inundation by the waters of the Mexican Gulf. On the east the region rises towards the Appalachian ranges; on the west to the outliers of the Cordilleran or Rocky Mountain system: whilst it is centrally intersected by the Mississippi River, which (in company with other numerous lesser rivers along the littoral) discharge into the Gulf of Mexico. In addition to its topography certain peculiarities of climate mark this region out from its neighbours. The warmth of the gulf and gulf stream so temper the winds which blow from the coast that they have an almost tropical temperature at all seasons; whilst, on the other hand, the country being entirely open to the north along the Mississippi valley from the Canadian plains and the Arctic slope, unprotected by mountain ranges or expanses of water, is exposed to the northern winds, which are exceedingly cold, so much so that frost results, and the thermometer falls, even on the gulf shore in winter, to



THE ARID WEST : "TEA-KETTLE BUTTE," MONTANA

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TOPOGRAPHICAL: SOUTH AND WEST

20° F. This, however, is but for short periods during the blowing of the *Norte*, or north-wind—for the Spanish word is used in Texas. The traveller who has experienced the sudden change from tropical heat to bitter cold which the *Norte* brings, in Texas and Mexico, will not soon forget the phenomenon. The prevailing wind in winter, however, blows from the south, so that a frosty temperature is rarely maintained for a whole day. The rainfall of the region is considerable, averaging ninety inches per annum in southern Louisiana, decreasing rapidly towards the west of Texas, where artificial irrigation is necessarily employed, as otherwise the country becomes too sterile for agriculture. The soil of the coast lowlands is generally fertile, resulting from the silt brought down by the rivers from the disintegration of the rocks in the interior of the continent; and these good soils extend even into the arid districts of insufficient rainfall. The great areas of the Mississippi deltas and of the other gulf-entering streams of this region have indeed proved the most enduring in point of fertility of soil, of the whole country. Delta districts are, however, subject to the condition of lack of drainage facilities, and of overflowing of river banks. Thus the dykes or “levees” of the Mississippi have become famous as engineering structures; and the control of these conditions will tax the engineering skill of the future.

The eastern or Appalachian portion of this region and the gulf shore as far west as Austin in Texas is forest-covered in part; a great variety of

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trees attaining to a perfection of growth scarcely encountered elsewhere in the country. Several species of oak and hard woods flourish in the higher lands of Alabama and adjoining states, and on the low-lying lands the southern pine grows in profusion and nobility of proportion. In the swamp districts the cypress occupies vast areas, and affords timber-reserves of much value. A great variety of agricultural products—perhaps the greatest in the country—are found in this gulf region, including all the cereals, sugar-cane, rice, root crops, fruits, etc., whilst the cotton crop is, and doubtless will remain, the most important agricultural product of this part of North America. Of mineral resources the region offers much of importance. Extensive fields of coal and iron form the basis of great industries in Alabama and Georgia. These coal-fields are of service, on the one hand, for the use of the Lake Superior iron district, whilst on the other it is reasonable to suppose that when the Panama Canal is opened the fuel will find a market on the Pacific coast of North and South America. The extensive iron ore deposits of Texas are of inferior quality, and no coal of importance has been found west of the Mississippi, in the United States. Of recent years, however, vast oil-fields have been discovered and worked in Texas, California and Mexico.

The climate of this region is less favourable for the people of English descent than the more northern regions, due to the rapid changes of temperature in the winter and the dampness induced by the warm, moisture-laden airs from the Gulf of

TOPOGRAPHICAL: SOUTH AND WEST

Mexico in summer. Ordinary malarial fevers are common throughout the lowlands, and occasional but serious epidemics of yellow fever have occurred all along the country bordering on the gulf, and on the Mississippi as far as its confluence with the Ohio. Nevertheless the physical characteristics of the people, whether of English—who dominate—German, Spanish or French descent, are such as go to show that the conditions of environment are not necessarily antagonistic to their development. The population generally, of this region, is somewhat varied, and the national characteristics in some cases—especially in the old part of the city of New Orleans—of each people, remain for generations but little influenced by the national American life. In the lowland part of Texas there are many Mexicans, who form a useful element in the population; but the considerable proportion of negroes in the lowland regions, whose climate is well adapted to the African race, is a serious condition for the future. In general terms this Mexican Gulf region has a certain asset in its climate, which affords a subtropical refuge for tourists and dwellers during the bitter winters of the north.

The upper Mississippi region may be taken to include the territory from the upper Missouri to the Canadian line, and within it lie parts of the States of Minnesota, Wisconsin, Iowa and Illinois. It is subject to a wide range of temperature, from 100° F. in the summer to 30° below zero in winter, although the relatively dry air makes these extremes more tolerable than might be the case under other con-

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ditions. On its western border the region is subject, in common with this part of the north American Continent generally, to the great air movements known as blizzards and tornadoes : fierce gales from the north and north-west, which, due to the relatively level surface of the country and lack of woods, sweep onward, often leaving destruction in their paths : loss of life and property. The region enjoys much sunshine, however, and dry air, which mitigates the excessive winter cold, whilst so suitable for tillage is its soil generally, that ninety-nine per cent of its land area is adaptable for agriculture. Thousands of lakes of varying sizes are the hydrographic characteristics of the region, and these both add beauty to the landscape and afford valuable means of water-supply for irrigation. The land consists mainly of open prairie, but there are forests along the stream, and considerable woodlands in part of Wisconsin and Minnesota. The mineral resources are limited mainly to some tolerably good coal in Iowa, and to building stone. It is an extremely healthy region. As to its people these are of a diversified origin, but the descendants of the English folk were the pioneers of its civilization, which consequently rests upon an excellent foundation ; and although considerable areas are occupied by people of German and Scandinavian origin, who endeavoured to perpetuate their own language and customs, to resist ultimate fusion with the Anglo-American type will be impossible. The peculiarly advantageous circumstances of transport which this region enjoys—the water system both of the lakes



THE WEST : TYPE OF AMERICAN STATE CAPITAL BUILDING, ST. PAUL, MINNESOTA

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TOPOGRAPHICAL: SOUTH AND WEST

and the Mississippi—have been responsible for the ease and celerity with which it was settled ; whilst the topographical conditions permitted rapid railway construction and easy tillage of the soil, with its accompaniment of cattle and grain : and quickly-acquired wealth.

South of this region of the Missouri, and north of Louisiana, is the region which may be called *the Arkansas region*, including the State of that name, part of Southern Missouri, and the principal part of the area known as Indian Territory. These all lie upon the western side of the Mississippi, and are watered by its great affluents coming from the west. A singular topographical feature is the isolated mountain system found in its central part, forming the most elevated portion of this vast central valley of the North American Continent. The climate is not unlike that of the region of the Mexican Gulf, whilst as to its soil, vast delta or alluvial districts exist along the great waterways. A vigorous forest growth is encountered on the lowlands ; the white oak and southern pine and many other species. Cotton and maize are staple products. The climate in the upper region is healthy, but along the Mississippi yellow fever invades it. As its name implies, Indian Territory was the home of numbers of aborigines who have been gathered there by the government of the Republic. Apart from these, it cannot be said that the citizens of the Arkansas region are of the best class. Yet there are descendants of the English colonists from the Virginia group of States who help to redeem the more in-

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ferior and shiftless character of the inferior white. Improvement, moreover, is taking place. The negro element is confined to the eastern and central lowlands. As regards minerals, some coal-beds exist, and the unique rock which is exported for whetstones; whilst among the geological features are the famous hot springs of Arkansas, among the most valuable curative thermal springs on the continent.

The lower Missouri region includes the greater part of the State of Missouri, and part of Iowa, Kansas and Nebraska, all lying along this great affluent of the Mississippi. It forms part of the great level floor of the continent lying between the Appalachian and Cordilleran mountain systems, and the Missouri and its tributaries have cut broad valleys through it. It is extremely fertile, almost the whole area being fit for tillage; a great detrital layer of earth covering the undisturbed limestone rocks. Wide alternations of temperature and humidity characterize its climate; the rainfall ranging from forty-five inches in Southern Missouri, to the low quantity where artificial irrigation is necessary for the production of crops; so that near the northern border of Nebraska and Iowa the land must be termed arid by nature. In Missouri the summer heat is potent, and cotton is produced; in the western part the frosts come much earlier. The continental eastern forest system reaches in luxuriance to the district bordering on the confluence of the Missouri and the Mississippi: and dies out as it goes westward, lingering along the streams.

TOPOGRAPHICAL: SOUTH AND WEST

Possibly the primeval forests extended further to the west, but have in early times been destroyed by fires. Of agricultural produce all the cereals, except rice, flourish, as also tobacco, and the usual fruits. Minerals are scarce, as is to be expected of a region of undisturbed orography, but the lead and zinc mines of the Joplin district in Missouri have been of much importance. The people are mainly of English descent from the Virginian group of colonies, and there are some of German stock; whilst the negro element is small.

The region of the Upper Missouri embodies the two States of Dakota—North and South, the former of which abuts upon the Canadian frontier. Indeed a small portion of this last-named State is upon the watershed of Hudson Bay. Generally speaking, the region belongs to the great plain-land of the continent, but the Black Hills of South Dakota give a mountainous character to that district. The general elevation above sea-level is greater than that of any other region so far described: the water-parting between the Missouri and Hudson Bay hydrographic systems is scarcely defined. In the south-western part the easily-eroded and tertiary formation has been deeply cut through by the streams, and the “Bad Lands” of Nebraska are of singular configuration in this connexion. The climate exhibits at times an intense cold, due partly to the high elevation, but the westerly winds blowing over the Rocky Mountains, which define this region to the west, modulate the temperature somewhat; and except during

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the prevalence of the fierce northers, the winter in the south is relatively mild, whilst the summer climate of the whole region is admirable. Like all elevated regions, the diurnal changes of temperature are considerable, and this region enjoys cloudless skies and days of sunshine to a greater extent perhaps than any other part of the Republic except California. The rainfall is not always sufficient for the harvests—grain and forage crops—but improved agricultural methods and irrigation will render far greater areas susceptible to the growing of food-products. One of the adverse conditions encountered is the violence of the wind at certain seasons. The region has been settled, so far, mainly by general European immigration; large volumes of people having eagerly entered what was a new, unoccupied land, and these have mingled with the native-born Americans, rather than forming separate centres of their own.

The last described regions, we shall have observed, lie between the great Mississippi region and another great paralleling feature of the continent—the Rocky Mountains, or North American Cordillera. The western side of those regions slopes up to this Cordillera, forming great tablelands, whose main geographical characteristic is that they are generally arid; the rainfall being insufficient for ordinary agriculture. This plateau-region, in which we have now arrived, may be likened to a vast inclined plane, extending from south to north for 2,000 miles, to where the more humid climatic conditions of Canadian territory cause a change in its



THE SNOW-CAPPED ROCKIES, STATE OF MONTANA

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character. The highest or westward side of this plane is from three to five thousand feet above sea-level, and the underlying cretaceous and tertiary rocks cause it to be characteristically poor in metal-liferous minerals. The streams are few and far between; the traveller may ride for a 100 or more miles without encountering anything but the dry beds of occasional water-courses; whilst the rivers of any considerable size are those which derive most of their volume from the melting snows of the Rocky Mountains. All these rivers discharge into the Missouri or other tributaries of the Mississippi, and consequently are all eastward flowing.

Notwithstanding its aridity for cultivation this Cordillera plateau region is productive of natural pasture, and was indeed the very centre of the home of the bison—now totally disappeared from the enormous area over which this splendid animal formerly dwelt. To-day it is, moreover, the most extensive cattle-raising region—with the exception of the South American pampas—in the world, although the cattle have to roam for great distances to secure sufficient sustenance.

We now approach what may be described as the most interesting region of the United States—that of the western mountains, which we shall term the *Cordillera region*. This enormous territory extends from the eastern slope of the Rocky Mountains, facing the Mississippi and Missouri valleys, to the westward slope of the great parallel chain of the Sierra Nevada of California, and its extension through Oregon and Washington. This

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Cordillera, as elsewhere described, is but a part of the huge Pacific-facing mountain and plateau system which extends from Cape Horn to Alaska. In the United States portion of its course, which we are considering, it attains, at the 40th parallel, a breadth of a thousand miles; and this huge region is marked geographically by its broken nature and by its aridity or lack of moisture. As to its hydrographical conditions the region is drained partly, to the south, by the great Colorado River, which empties into Pacific waters in Mexico, partly by the affluents of the Rio Grande, whose waters go to the Mexican Gulf; and at the north by the affluents of the great Columbia River, debouching into the Pacific: whilst a considerable area consists of closed basins, in the centre of which "dead seas" exist, such as the great Salt Lake, and others. Included in this wonderful and interesting Cordillera region are the States of Arizona, Utah, Idaho, Nevada, part of California, Oregon, and Washington, and part of New Mexico, Colorado, Wyoming and Montana—a vast range of territory which covers a large part of the area of the United States.

It is calculated that four-fifths of this region is fitted, as far as condition of soil is concerned, for agriculture, but the lack of rainfall reduces the available area to that which lies within the capabilities of its streams to irrigate. Great hydraulic-reclamation works have been undertaken in the conquest of these desert regions, notably in Nevada, Utah, and Southern California. From Southern Colorado northwards, in the high valleys and ridges, forests of coniferous trees abound, extending into



ROCK-FORMATIONS IN COLORADO : THE "SIAMESE TWINS"

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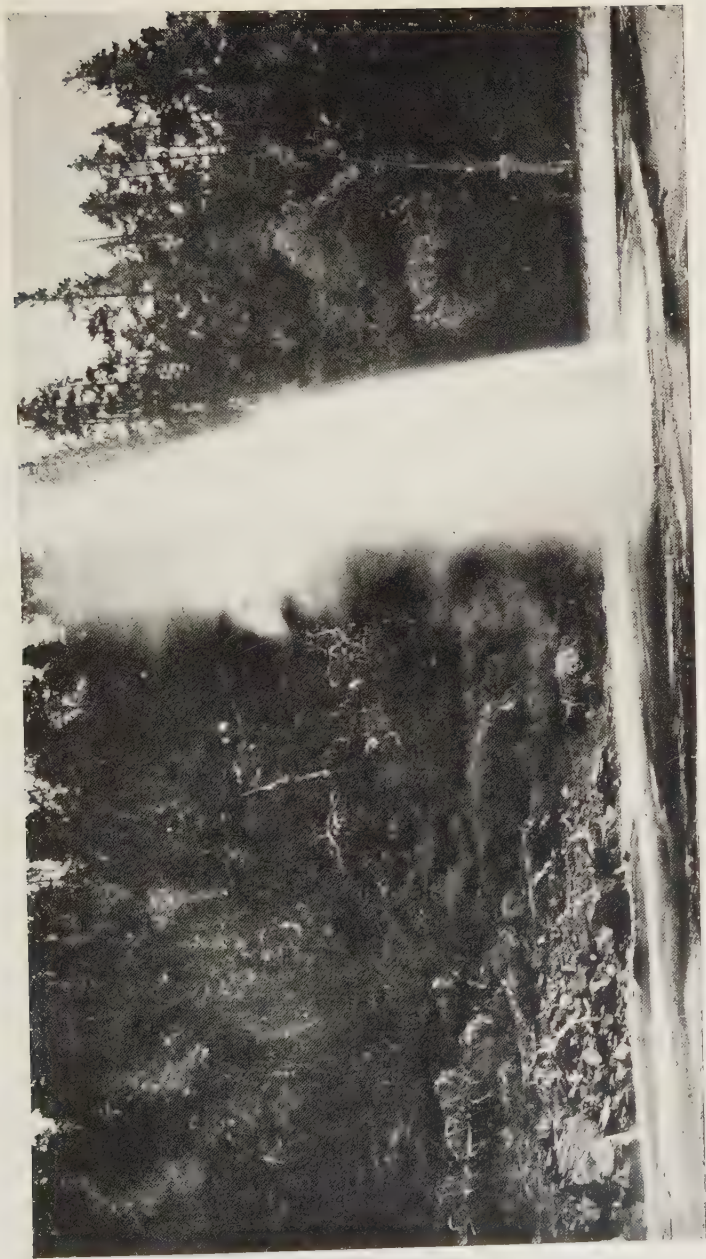
Canada, but they suffer severely from forest fires, and vast areas of wood-land have perished in half a century, probably for ever; for the forests of this region are partly the residue of the primeval forests of earlier epochs of heavier rainfall, and once destroyed they do not now reproduce themselves.

What nature has deprived this region of, however, in the organic world, she has compensated for in the mineral species. The Cordillera is extremely rich in ores of gold, silver, lead, copper, and other metalliferous minerals, whilst coal is found in some districts. The scenic value of the Cordillera region is the greatest in point of variety and stupendous topographical effect of any part of the Republic. The Grand Cañon of the Colorado, the Yellowstone district: the snowy mountains—all are phases of nature's handiwork of striking form and enduring interest. As for the people inhabiting this region, the immigrants, with the exception of the Mexican element in its southern part, were of an excellent class of English origin, and its civilization must prosper accordingly. The main industry is that of mining, and the peculiar type of agriculture under irrigation which the natural conditions have occasioned. Climatologically it is admirably adapted to the Anglo-Saxon people, who have shown no degeneration from their habitation of it.

California and its sister States of the Pacific littoral occupy the western part of this great region. Crossing the desert plains westward from the Rocky Mountains we approach the snowy chain which cuts off California from the interior of the continent, and descend thence to the Great Central Valley,

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drained by the Sacramento and San Joaquin Rivers, with their outlet into the Bay of California, whose portal to the ocean is the famous Golden Gate. The great coniferous forests of the Sierra Nevadas are the most remarkable in the world, including as they do, the giant sequoias, redwoods, and pines, thousands of years of age. The Central Valley is a large fertile area which now is one of the world's most famous fruit-producing districts. Southern California is arid by nature, but man has made portions of it extremely fruitful under irrigation. Oregon and Washington are of much importance in the scheme of the country's future. A climate of heavier rainfall approximates more to the conditions of the Eastern States, and the great Columbia River, and the splendid harbours of Puget Sound ensure an important future for the maritime people who have come to being therein. A strong British stock has taken root, and civic progress proceeds upon good Anglo-Saxon lines; the commercial instinct predominating. Of great scenic interest is this littoral region. Mountains crowned with perpetual snow, stupendous cañons, such as the Yosemite, splendid coniferous forests, clear azure skies and vast expanses of desert terminating in picturesque bays and shores, all dowered with a unique climate, render California and its sister States a region of peculiar interest and value. Far less developed than the New England littoral, the sea-board of the Pacific may nevertheless acquire in the future an equal value to that of the Atlantic, and its towns already give promise of such importance.



THE YELLOWSTONE : A GEYSER

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CHAPTER IV

AMERICAN TRAVEL

As to steamers—New York—Which way?—Vast railway systems—A psalm of the locomotive—American and English railways compared—The New York Central and the “Twentieth Century Limited”—Luxurious trains—Overheating—“Tipping”—Poor immigrants—Materialistic Americans—The charm of the railway—Danger in American travel—Loss of life—Farthest West

THE atmosphere of American travel begins from the time the first American official steps on board our steamer, as having passed Sandy Hook we approach the Statue of Liberty and observe in the haze of the New England shore the striking, white tower-buildings of New York—most striking when seen from afar. Of course if we have crossed the Atlantic on an American steamer—a method which if we are experienced travellers we shall probably not adopt—we shall have entered the atmosphere of America at once. This latter statement is not made in any unkind spirit: it is simply that the Americans seem to be unfitted, so far, for the intimate service of others which steamer life demands, except possibly for their own countrymen, who understand them. Yet this condition is changing in some instances. Notably is the great

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New York Central Railway improving its steamer connexions, and catering to European travel.

Steamer travel upon the various lines, of whatever nationality, which cross the North Atlantic from Europe to America is certainly one of the marvels of modern life from its luxury, convenience and safety. But it has certain limitations. After many passages across this broad sea, and upon others of the great silent highways of the world, the traveller might, almost unwittingly, sum up steamship travel in the axiom, if it may be called such, of: "Too much to eat, and too little room". The marvellous floating steam palaces have perfected every detail except one, which, to the refined mind, is still a relic of barbarism. This is, that you are forced, under ordinary circumstances, to share your apartment with a stranger, who sleeps, snores, and performs all other functions within arm's reach of you, and whose presence in a cabin six feet by ten—or whatever it may be—you cannot escape during the term of the voyage.

Now you will hope not to be dubbed a curmudgeon for objecting to the near presence of a man and a brother; but to some—and doubtless to most travellers—privacy is sanctity. You would not share your bedroom in your hotel with a stranger—that is under ordinary civilized circumstances—why should you do so in a steamer? Of course, space is limited, but the real reason is that the designers of steamships have not yet got beyond the influence of the times when human cargo, were it slaves, emigrants or crews, were packed in regardless of

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anything but the hope of reaching a distant port alive. As to the food on board the great Atlantic liners, each line seems obliged to vie with its rival in the stuffing of passengers, as if they were prize pigs, rather than temperate human beings. Of course some of them *are* pigs apparently, and the ample trough of the steamer's table is their chief delight. But it would seem to the layman that economy in cost per passenger might be exercised in this remarkable array of food, and added to the matter of cabin space.

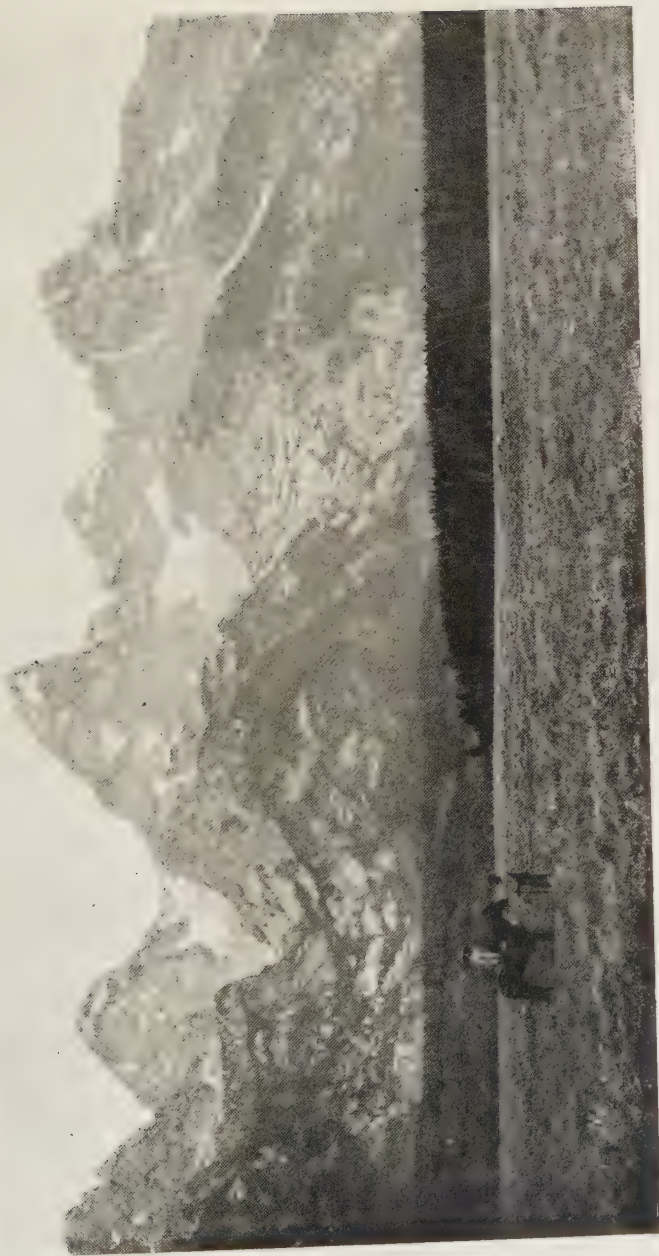
No doubt the matter of desiring to be alone is very much of a British trait however, and it is to be observed that men of other nationalities often seem positively to prefer to "hunt in couples," especially Frenchmen and Germans, and indeed the Americans, whether those of the United States, whether—and in much greater degree,—those of Latin-America.

But our steamer is at the dock, we have passed through the oppressive matters of customs and sanitary officers incidental upon entering the New World this way, whose methods are described in another chapter; and we are installed in our hotel in New York. Which way are our faces set? Shall we go westward? The mighty trunk lines of railway will bear us for three thousand miles towards the setting sun, across the Alleghanies, past Pittsburg, Philadelphia and other great emporiums of the Eastern States into the Mississippi Valley, greatest valley of commercial man the world has ever known, studded with splendid centres of

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activity—Buffalo, Niagara, Chicago, St. Louis, and others of the fine cities by the Great Lakes or the great fluvial highways. Thence on to the high plateaux and the Rockies we are carried, among the splendid mountains and plains of America, past its Dead Sea, the Great Salt Lake, near where the Mormon people live; and through the land of shimmering deserts, cactus, sage brush, coyotes, giant cañons, geysers, irrigated farms, till we reach the snow-topped walls of California and Oregon, and go down to the Pacific Ocean at San Francisco or Seattle. Or shall we go northwards? That way lies the St. Lawrence, and beyond it Montreal and Toronto in the King's dominions; and we should traverse the great land of promise of the British Empire to Winnipeg, and thence to the broad North-West and onwards to the gateway of Pacific Empire—British Columbia. Southwards we might go, and having passed through the distinctive, more peaceful life of the Southern States, enter the world of Latin-America, which begins with New Orleans and extends beyond that Paris of the North American Continent—the city of Mexico.

A simple glance shows us how wide-spreading are the railway routes which take their way from New York to all points of the compass. A description of American railways would require a volume to itself, and would indeed form a work of interest. Here we can but pause to gain an idea of their great extent and importance as shown by the fact that in the year 1909 their aggregate length was 286,000 miles; equal to more



THE WILD WEST : VIEW NEAR THE SNAKE RIVER

AMERICAN TRAVEL

than one half of the world's total railway mileage. They represent invested capital to the amount of £3,000,000,000 ; disposed among a large number of companies, more than fifty of which have over 1000 miles of line each ; whilst some of the largest corporations control from 5000 to 10,000 miles each. The Pennsylvania Railroad has 11,000 miles, whilst the mighty New York Central, with other systems which it controls, is responsible for the operation of 14,000 miles. All American railroads are in private hands ; there is no State ownership ; although what the future may bring about, in view of the strong Socialistic trend of thought in America (as elsewhere) it would be impossible to forecast. This huge mileage of railway, together with the central stations in the large cities employ an army of 1,250,000 workers.

The railways of the United States are colossal engineering structures which—including those of Canada—represent the greatest development of the road-building art of mankind. It is not that they are the most perfect specimens of railway construction, although some of them are ; for British work of this nature is generally superior, but they are the most audacious in their traversing of mountains, rivers, deserts and continents, and in the methods by which they have been financed, and the rapidity with which they have been built. The stay-at-home British or London financier or share speculator who knows the names of these great arteries of travel only from the cryptic jargon of the financial column of his daily paper, has no idea

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of the world of railway romance beyond the Atlantic. The terms "American Rails," "Trunks," "Milwaukees," or other Capel Court language naturally do not convey any idea of miles of yellow maize-fields, miles of oil-wells, coal-fields, and factory chimneys; leagues of shimmering deserts, and profound cañons and snow-crowned summits. The trembling viaduct and the roaring torrent a thousand feet below, on the railways of the Western States; or the miles of snow-sheds and tunnels are not pictured to him; nor yet the clanging bell of the American locomotive, the brusque trainmen; the hurried meals at wayside stations, of singular American dishes; nor all the lore of oil and overalls and sky and land and strenuous life which the term "railroad" in this mighty land conveys. The roar of the American locomotive is a modern psalm of life; ruthlessly onward, ruthlessly strenuous, with glimpses of heaven and more frequently of Hades, borne through the darkness and light of the changing panorama of time and space which it traverses. Look at this appalling centre of steel production, where a hundred clamouring mills are swallowing up iron and carbon and human lives to manufacture these very rails over which we are speeding, or the rigid punched and riveted skeletons of those sky-defying towers of office buildings, looming up beyond every depot, where man's usurious plans are worked out. It is a terrible, splendid phase of man's work, immeasurably more in evidence in America than in Europe; but we love it better as a memory; and our somewhat

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oppressed spirit rises again as it fades away and gives place, as it constantly does, to fields of waving corn and some squatters' habitations, set beside an unpolluted stream.

The railways of England give us, in some respects, the idea of a beautifully-working toy, after years of experience of the uglier, vaster material and regimen of the American lines. It is of little use to compare them on similar grounds; each is the result of its environment; and the one could not be replaced by the other. The traveller will at once be struck by the great size of American locomotives and their singular and often disproportionate appearances, as also of the form and size of American freight cars and passenger cars, beside which the British models are indeed toy-like. As regards speed, however, the British lines are generally superior to American, but in freight-hauling capacity they are infinitely less. The average time per hour of American trains is much below British, whilst in the West there is not much attempt at speeds above twenty-five miles an hour. But it would be unfair to give the impression that railway travelling is generally slow in the States. On the splendid railways of the Atlantic seaboard, which run towards the Mississippi Valley and the Great Lakes, and which are the most important routes of travel, very high speeds are maintained. Upon "America's greatest railway system" as the New York Central Railway justifiably terms itself, some of the fastest trains in the world are run. In point of fact this line claims "the world's fastest long

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distance train" in its rapid service between New York and Chicago, or Boston and Chicago. The distance between the two first-mentioned cities is 1,000 miles—nearly—and this is accomplished in eighteen hours by the express train known as the "Twentieth Century Limited".

The luxurious trains on the principal Eastern lines of America leave little to be desired from the traveller's point of view, as regards equipment. The cars are magnificently upholstered, and warmed in cold weather—warmed, indeed, too much for the Britisher's comfort, as has been stated elsewhere. Everything that ingenuity can suggest in the way of appliances has been adapted to the pullman car. You dine or breakfast as you go along in the handsome dining cars, and you must indeed be a fastidious traveller if you are unable to select satisfactorily from the bill set before you. Moreover you can have any toilet operation performed for you in the barber's shop, at fixed charges for "tonsorial services"; from hair-cut or shave, to massage, bath or manicure. So complete are the arrangements that, upon some of the special trains, the traveller might be in his hotel. Lest justice should fail to be done to these features of American travel the following quotation from a pamphlet issued by one of the leading lines will afford a glimpse of this phase of Americanism.

"These trains are not experiments. They are established and permanent features of the New York Central Lines, 'America's greatest railway system'. They make their marvellous time be-



THE "TWENTIETH CENTURY EXPRESS," DOING 1000 MILES A DAY BETWEEN NEW YORK AND CHICAGO,
NEW YORK CENTRAL RAILROAD

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tween New York, Boston, Chicago and St. Louis day in and day out, year in and year out, like clockwork. We want to tell you about some of their novel features. Patrons of these trains find themselves surrounded by every comfort and luxury. Everything is up-to-date—up to the very latest date. The cars are illuminated with electric light, and in addition to the electroliers in the ceiling there are electric reading lamps in each drawing-room, state-room and section, that may be turned on or off at the will of the occupant. One special feature which is greatly appreciated is the Bell telephone service. The telephone is in the observation car, and is available until the last moment before the train starts from Grand Central Station in New York, and from the La Salle Street Station in Chicago. The telephone is at the disposal of patrons of the trains free of charge, except for toll calls. If you have forgotten anything you can telephone at the very last moment, when you would be debarred, by the fear of getting left, if you were obliged to look for a telephone in the station. This service is available, as well, for your family or office force, affording them the opportunity of communicating with you at the last moment by calling, in New York '6000 Bryant,' and, in Chicago 'Harrison 1661' and asking to be connected with the observation car on the 'Twentieth Century Limited' the 'Lake Shore Limited' or (in New York only) the South-Western Limited, then giving the name of the person with whom communication is desired, when the attendant will

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give the call prompt attention. In the buffet library car you will find a barber, who, in addition to his tonsorial duties, will also provide the means for a refreshing bath, including sea salt, if desired. This innovation will undoubtedly be very much appreciated by those travelling a long distance. The barber is also prepared to perform all the duties of an experienced valet in connexion with the sponging and pressing of your clothing, which can be done while you sleep and be in readiness when you awake in the morning. The porter or ladies' maid will, upon request, provide a pitcher of hot water for shaving or other toilet purposes. The attention of our lady patrons is particularly called to the fact that the maids in service on these trains are experienced manicures, fully equipped and anxious to cater to their wants in that direction. Large paper bags are provided, free of charge, for the protection of ladies' hats, veils, coats and furs, as well as gentlemen's silk hats, while *en route*. It is the duty of the porters on the cars to see that patrons are furnished with this additional convenience. Letters written on these trains, properly stamped and placed in the letter-box in the observation car, will be mailed by the pullman conductor. The library is an up-to-date collection of the latest books. In the library car you will also find a stenographer always ready to take your dictation, free of charge. This will appeal to you if you have caught the train in a rush with a lot of important letters unwritten."

It will readily be understood that this particular

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line, operating as it does between the largest cities of the Eastern and Mississippi regions, represents the best conditions of railway travel. But there are other lines which can scarcely be said to fall short of this model, in their equipment, and each vies with the other in securing patronage by the method of efficiency; or at least in advertising the efficiency it claims. This full equipment and elaborate service, as may well be supposed, is not obtained without high prices. The cost of pullman berths and meals is, of course, additional to the ordinary first-class railway fare, and prices seem very high to the European traveller, accustomed to the much less expensive conditions of life and travel in Britain, or the Old World generally. More money is earned, undoubtedly, by the great bulk of American citizens than by the Europeans; it is more easily gained and much more freely spent; it circulates with greater freedom, and it is this circumstance which permits such lavish outlay. Frugality and economy must be cast to the winds in this exhilarating environment.

The overheating of railway carriages—as well as offices and houses—to which I have referred, is a custom which is trying to the Englishman. In the pullman cars it seems that the negro porter, in charge of the heating apparatus, has sworn to be avenged on the white man by grilling him alive at night, as he lies sweating in his berth! I have journeyed from New York to the city of Mexico, or from New York to San Francisco on these excellently appointed trains, but have heaved a

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sigh of relief in escaping the New York winter and entering California or Mexico—not by reason of the cold but the artificial heat. On one occasion, in a sleeping car between Philadelphia and St. Louis somewhere, I was obliged to get up in the middle of the night and look for the negro custodian. “I say, old chap, couldn’t you turn off the steam heat a little?” I said insinuatingly. “Couldn’t do it, sah,” he replied. “Ladies in de car complainin’ ob de cold.” However, the ladies got out at their station, in the early hours of the morning, of which fact he came to inform me, and, aided doubtless by a silver coin which I put into his palm, he turned off the heat, and I was able to sleep. Yet the clear cold days in the American and Canadian country are delightful and healthful, and as to the snow, it forms a natural means of transport only secondary in use to the rivers and the roads. Logging, or timber-extraction, and the carriage of farm produce, is largely performed in the regions of snowfall of the United States and Canada in winter by means of sledges. Swamps and muddy country roads become frozen up and covered with snow over which sledge traffic is easy; and we shall retain strong recollections of the utility and pleasure derived from this means of transport.

The habit of “tipping” waiters or other servants in America was of very recent years considered derogatory. But that primitive and honourable exercise of virtue by restraint is rapidly disappearing. The *douceur* is growing everywhere, and Americans give larger gratuities than are neces-

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sary in many cases, especially abroad. When I revisited an hotel in the city of Mexico where I had formerly stayed, it seemed to me that the native waiters had been spoilt by the tips of Americans, and always looked for more than they had formerly received, without being more efficient for it. They have done the same in Europe. In America, the "free and independent" American waiter might formerly have been insulted if you offered him a tip; now he is rude if he does not get it. Or, formerly, what he pocketed shamefacedly or contemptuously, he now expects as a right. Americans, with a wish, natural enough, to deprecate the custom, often pretend to deny this, but the following characteristic American comment cannot be gainsaid: "The man from Poland, who started from the Old Country in the steerage, with cheese and dried herring, and who is still partaking of his lunch from home while riding from New York to San Francisco, is the only man who beats the dining-car waiter out of a tip. That is the consensus of opinion among the dining-car superintendents who are holding their ninth annual convention. They admit that the American public tips waiters on dining-cars with exceeding liberality, and also that this same public kicks with the force and directness of an army mule when the service is not up to the standard."¹

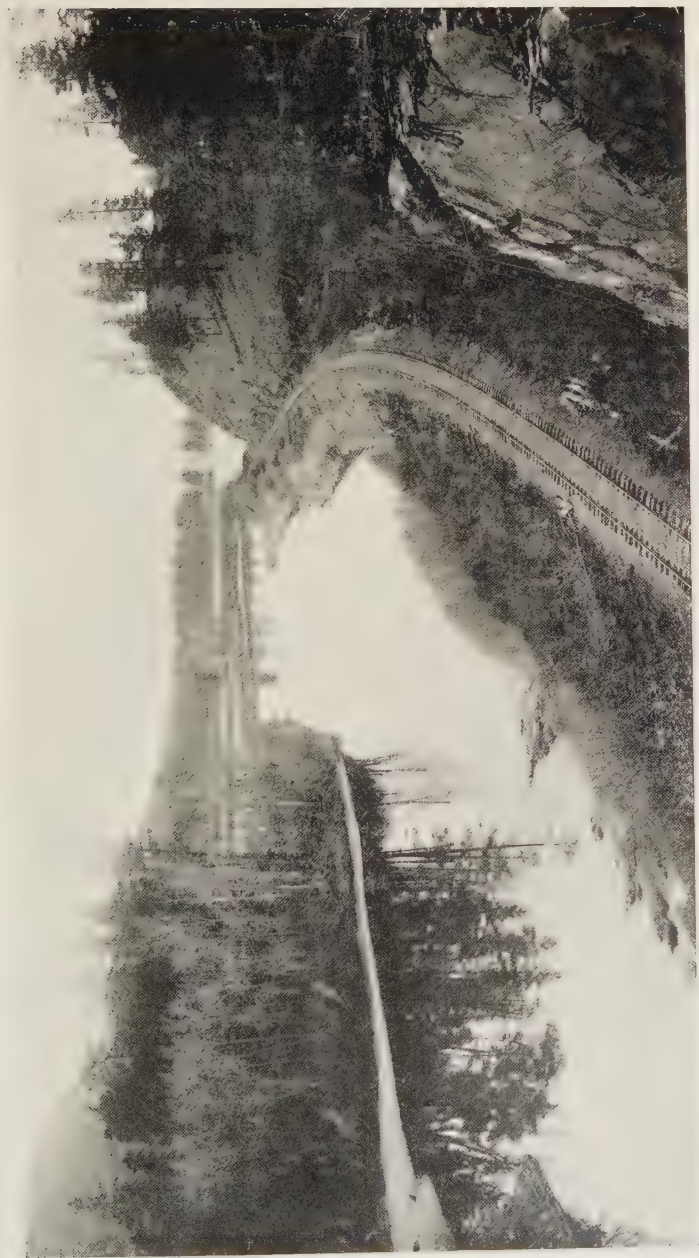
This picturesque paragraph tells more—unconsciously—than the mere matter of the increase of tipping. There is a whole world of unconscious pathos embodied in the matter of the poor, Old

¹ "The St. Paul Despatch."

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World immigrant, who left his native shores with some homely food which should last him throughout the journey to that strange New World which he, or fate for him, had elected to be made his home, and the country of the issue of his loins. In my journeys over the American transcontinental railways I have observed these poor immigrants from Europe with the deepest interest, and have walked from the comfort of my pullman car to the second or third class coaches of an "overland" train, crowded with non-English speaking immigrants, to travel with and study them. The poorer class of immigrants generally bring boxes of food with them, and are independent of the dining car, even supposing they could afford its exorbitant charges, or the "tender mercies of the heathen," by which I mean the Chinese wayside railway station restaurant, with its scarcely less high-priced table for hurrying passengers. They devour their primitive comestibles unconscious of or indifferent to the gaze of the trainmen, or their remarks—which indeed they do not understand; and the herding about by immigration and other officials occasions them little surprise. Doubtless they consider American brusqueness and incivility a necessary part of this great New World, and accept it uncomplainingly and philosophically.

There is one condition in American travel which is early impressed upon us, although we could scarcely have failed to know of it before we entered the country. It is, that the observer's sympathies are attracted to the land, rather than to the people;



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that is, to the land and the works of man upon it—his buildings and his railways and other matters of his genius, but not so much to man individually. For the American lacks the colour and individuality of other peoples. He is not picturesque—nor pretends to be; he is not mysterious, occult, or antique; simply because he is not so. He is not dignified or lovable—he does not want to be so. We shall not find depths of light and shade in human nature here. All is open to the view—we do not mean superficial; everything is laid bare to the world and proclaimed with a blatant voice from the house-tops. We are witnessing a huge turn-over of mankind in Nature's operation of human evolution. If we had come there a few centuries ago we should have found nothing, except primitive man; if we were able to go there in the far future we should again find a different state of things. Nature has done with the sandalled Arab, who trod his desert paths for æons; she has done with the simple peasant or shepherd, who, between his hours of toil brought forth the flute and flagon to forget the sweat of his brow. She has done with the patriarch of Bible times, as with the landed gentleman of Britain or Europe, who loved, oppressed, or patronized the simple folk who gratefully took the crumbs which dropped from his table. All these are past. The melting-pot of time has taken in crowns and sceptres, races and dynasties, pyramids and temples, and with them much of lore and sanctity, and has poured forth a new metal, whose calibre and meaning it is yet too early to discover.

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But let us enter our luxurious pullman car. First of all let the traveller bring to mind one unwritten rule for American travel: neither give nor expect much in the way of courtesy. It is superfluous and even harmful in this land. Let your method be "yea, yea" and "nay, nay," or their modern equivalent, for part of Nature's experiment here is to have eliminated courtesy. You will not be long in finding out that you can do fairly well without it. You will not, of course, be intentionally rude, and if you are an Englishman or Scotchman the traditional British laconicism and bearishness or reserve is of much value. The Englishman earned a name during the last century or two for being rude and mannerless. It was really only his reserve. Now his descendants, the Americans, are not rude through reserve, but through aggressiveness, but they are not sufficiently refined to know the difference yet. No one would desire to see the servile "yessir" and constant "thankyou" of the English servant introduced into America; and certainly it never will be, but there might be a happy medium in these amenities.

We shall, from time to time, forget these pronounced traits of our American kinsmen in our admiration of their genius and practicability. The railways are a good object-lesson to begin upon, and the trains will form our constant habitation possibly for a week, as inside them, or standing on the back platform of our pullman, we observe at ease the Mississippi or the Rocky Mountains, or the great

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plateau of Mexico, or other geographical features of the continent pass underneath us.

I must bear witness to retaining pleasant recollections of many journeys upon American railways. I have gone into them from the turmoil of busy cities, and wearied and perhaps hungry with the rush of some departure, have entered the quiet of the luxurious pullman, handed my bag to the negro porter who—with that singular blending of good-nature saturated with equality and a patronizing manner of the son of Africa—shows me to my “section” or seat, much in the same way that we are shown our pew in a far-off English country town. There the train stands; it will leave perhaps in half an hour—I am picturing an evening departure—but from the moment you enter it and sit at your ease in your exclusive seat, which you have purchased perhaps a day before, you can cast off all the troubles of the world, if you wish. For in that comfortable vehicle you will sleep, dine, wash, smoke, read, and anything else, for the best part of a week, possibly, if your journey is taking you—as mine have variously done—far over the mountains and the plains, to San Francisco or distant Mexico. These long journeys on American railways are of great and varying interest, and will appeal to some travellers far more than the life on board steamships. Here you will be able to pass long periods of pleasurable observation of thousands of miles of varied landscape. Day after day speeds by, with hours spent perhaps upon the platform of the pullman car, especially if by good fortune it happens to be the end one of

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the train. It was not only the love of changing scenery which drew me there; the topographical structure of the country and the unfolding of the line from the point of view of the engineer and geographer also fascinated me. How splendidly the hills and valleys roll together behind the train as viewed from the back of the car; and miles of "tangent" give place to sharp curves, around which the train rolls and groans as we leave the plain for the foothills. There is much of interest in the geometrical expression which a railway is. We recollect that it is an exact line traced upon the surfaces of planes, cylinders and cones; the varying topographical form of the earth's surface; and that it does not err an inch in miles from mathematical accuracy. From New York to San Francisco (or from London to Edinburgh) we have but traversed a series of curves and tangents and spirals, each part of a geometrical plan.

We shall pass huge bridges and viaducts on our way, great spans of lattice across the Ohio, Mississippi or others of the giant streams of America; and high trestles thousands of feet long across pine-clothed mountain gorges; and long, low pile structures where the railway crosses wide stony tracts which, did we not know it, we should not believe were rivers at some seasons of the year, where floods of water come hurtling down and occasionally wash away everything before them which offers resistance to the current. In the Cis-Mississippi region, however, the Eastern States, natural conditions are more stable than in the West,



MARSHALL PASS, COLORADO, 10,856 FEET ELEVATION.

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and the railways are constructed with greater solidity.

The matter of safety in travelling upon American railways is not one which—fortunately—will pre-occupy the traveller's mind, unless he happens to have studied the statistics dealing therewith. Better for his peace of mind if he has not, for the loss of life due to railway accidents in America is appalling, when compared with England, both among employees and travellers. This railway "war" is sometimes more terrible than the conflicts of the battlefield; and it was calculated at the time of the Boer War, by some whimsical statistician, that the number of men which fell there did not exceed the number killed on the American railroads. These disasters, whilst they are due to various causes, have at base one main factor—the American character. Whilst giving the railway officials of the United States every credit for their marked spirit of enterprise, it must be chronicled that they are guilty of almost criminal negligence at times, and of indifference to the value of human life. "Will nothing interfere with the American railroads' beneficent work of reducing its patrons to pulp? Cannot American railway passengers be safeguarded as in England?" was asked despairingly by an American newspaper, after a disaster more than ordinarily appalling. In the year 1908, it is recorded that 3500 railway employees alone were killed; to say nothing of the passengers; and conditions are yearly getting worse. One railway wreck per day, over the whole area of the

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country, might be too high an average, but we shall rarely open our morning paper in the United States without reading of some disaster. One of the leading New York papers¹ recently expressed itself in the following terms:—

“In the matter of rigging the stock market the American railroad manager has no superior. In the matter of providing safe and expeditious facilities for transportation he has no inferior in any nation of the first rank. He can manipulate political conventions, he can debauch Legislatures, he can send his paid attorneys to Congress, and sometimes put them on the bench. In these matters he is a master, just as he is a master in the art of issuing and juggling securities. It is only in the operation of railroads that he is deficient. The mere detail of transporting lives and property safely and satisfactorily he seems to regard as unworthy of his genius. His equipment is usually inadequate, his road-bed is generally second-class or worse, his employees are undisciplined, and his system is archaic.”

After an arraignment of this nature, not infrequent in the American Press, it is unnecessary for the foreigner to indulge in much criticism. “You are always safest in a pullman,” said the conductor of the “Twentieth Century Greased Lightning Express” to me as we conversed whilst speeding along, adding, “These cars are as solid as they make ’em, *and in a collision they go through everything else.*” I have pleasure in handing on this valuable information for the benefit of intending travellers!

¹ The “New York World”.

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It is not the purpose of this work to take up the rôle of guide-book, and the wonders and beauties of the Adirondacks, the Catskills, Niagara, the Thousand Islands of the St. Lawrence, the peaceful or picturesque lake scenery, and the quiet valleys of the Eastern part of the United States could not be treated here with justice. There is a great variety of scenery, of rugged hills, deep glens and rushing streams, all interspersed with farms and orchards, offering the European traveller at times startling resemblances to his own Old World countries. The Englishman notes the prevalence of English names to hills and vales, and even to towns and cities, throughout New England; and might fancy himself in Britain occasionally, were he not rapidly awakened by the clanging bell of the locomotive, the nasal drawl of the American, and the brusque alert tones of the people, far removed from the soothing atmosphere of Albion: yet of great interest in the light of a study of humanity. In crossing the United States it is necessary to bear intelligently in mind the great natural divisions of the country, such as noted before; that is to say, the Atlantic region, the Mississippi Valley, divided from it by the Alleghany and other mountains, the Rocky Mountain region beyond the Mississippi, and then the Great Basin or deserts which extend to the Californian Sierras, and which cut California off from the Eastern States.

It is the trans-Mississippi region which will most greatly attract the more adventurous traveller, just as the softer scenery of the New England

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regions, Florida, the St. Lawrence, and others, attracts the tourist who loves not the deserts and the Cordilleras. The Rocky Mountains, the Great Salt Lake, the Grand Cañon of the Colorado, the Yellowstone Park, with its extraordinary geysers and wild scenery; the Painted Desert, the land of the Cliff-dwellers, the snow-crowned Cascades and Sierras, the Yosemite Valley: the American Mediterranean of Puget Sound, the Columbia River with its scenery, standing alone among Nature's works of its particular kind: the Californian orange groves, overtopped by snowy mountains, and the beautiful semi-tropical resorts of the Pacific Coast—all these and many other features, so unique as only America affords, are there for our contemplation, and upon them we might write books upon books, as indeed books have been, and will be written, without doing more than forming a humble index of Nature's own endless and alluring volume of this region Farthest West.



MOUNT RAINIER

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CHAPTER V

AMERICAN SCENERY

Geographical romance—Railway literature—Go West, young man!—Picturesque frontier life—Unique rock-scenery—The Rocky Mountains—Indian reservations—"Dry-farming"—Sunset in the desert—The great wilderness—The Great Salt Lake—The Mormons—The Cliff-dwellers—Arizona—The Aztecs—Mexico—The Grand Cañon—The Sierra Nevadas—California—San Francisco—The Pacific Coast

THE sense of "geographical romance," if I may use the term, has become strongly developed in the American railroad manager, as a commercial asset. The "folders" or pamphlets of railway companies, which are encountered on every hand, are a marvel of commercial literature. They are full of enthusiastic description and suggestion, and lavishly illustrated with glimpses of "scenic wonderlands" for the allurements of the tourist; full of apostrophe and "fine writing," with flashes of geographical and climatological detail. A snow-capped mountain jostles a "sky-scraper"; the Grand Cañon of the Colorado and the "Grand Cañon" of Broadway—the latter shown as a passage between giant walls of office buildings—invite comparison with each other. The scientific traveller may scorn these pamphlets, but they are an indication of virile resource

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and practical appreciation which is not found elsewhere. Of course their primary object is to induce you to travel over the particular route described. Everything is set forth in the plainest manner, and the most obtuse traveller could scarcely fail to understand. Transportation in America (it has nothing to do with convicts) is a veritable science, and sometimes it seems to the foreigner that railway travelling is the principal occupation of the people! To look at these folders in your dreary New York hotel—you will find them by the dozen in the hotel office—is enough to give you an attack of “Western fever” on the spot. Take one down; what does it say? It says, perhaps, “Southern Pacific Railway—Sunset Route,” and upon the cover there is depicted a diagram of a setting sun, into whose golden disk two parallel lines of rails and sleepers extend to where they are lost in perspective. Farther on it says “Louisiana, Texas, Arizona, California, Mexico”. What visions these words conjure up! It is difficult to resist throwing your business to the winds and taking a ticket. We think of the old French regime of New Orleans, and of the Spanish Conquistadors of New Spain and the Pacific Coast; of Cliff-dwellers, mysterious deserts, untravelled cañons, snowy sierras, orange groves, vineyards, mighty rivers; and, still to the South, of that strange romantic land where the Aztecs reared their temples and their pyramids. Go West, young man! If you do not suffer from Western fever—well, then, you are too busy, or too rich, or not

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worth your salt. Can you contemplate the pictures of California's giant trees—trees which were sprouting from their seeds at the time the people of the Nile were building their pyramids, or when Abraham turned his camel from the Euphrates towards Canaan, without wanting to see them with your own eyes? Can you read of the Rocky Mountains and not desire to hurry there, and have you seen "the treasures of the snow" only on paper, and the colours of the sunset on the rocks of the Grand Cañon only on the canvas of the artist? Where else shall we find time-tables of trains which introduce snatches of verse and wise saws between the columns of figures, or tell you to "hurry up and go a-fishing whilst the fishing's good"? 'Take time by the forelock, is the burden of their message—and take your ticket by the "greased-lightning express"—or train of whatever other picturesque nomenclature.

The singular legends encountered at unexpected places on American railways are evidence of the sardonic humour of these people. "Rush this through," is a favourite message, chalked in large letters on freight cars. At one station I beheld a string of refrigerator cars, with fruit from Californian orchards, and upon a board, conspicuously placed, were the words, "Rush this through like hell—perishable"!

The love of opportunity, so strongly displayed in the American character, shows out even in their railway announcements. The American is so constituted that if he were assured that superior con-

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ditions of climate and soil were to be encountered on the planet Mars he would yearn to leave his own land and get there. This spirit was manifest in the rush for claims whenever new reservations were thrown open. These were Indian land reservations, but the Indians have either died or gone away, and their late happy hunting grounds on earth—always too restricted for the red man, vast though the reservations are—have been gradually opened to the advancing tide of Westward-trekking homeseekers. Horsemen, wagons, people on foot, “tenderfoot” young men, “old-timers,” “fossickers,” thieves, farmers, priests, murderers—all were to be found among the crowd which toed the line, guarded diligently by the United States troops until such moment as it should become frank by the firing of the signal-gun. And then came the rush for fertile bottom lands, the feverish staking out of each chosen site and the holding it against all comers ; the seizing by rapid gallop of town sites—towns which should spring up in a season. Another generation will not witness these scenes ; and the prodigal gift of land now spread in America and the British Colonies will no longer exist. There is a note of sadness in it. I witnessed the beginning of one such scene.

The transcontinental railways bear us among the wonderful mountain scenery of Colorado, of which high-standing Denver is the queen city. There is a world of marvellous mineral wealth in this region, the gift of the giant Cordillera of the Rocky Mountains, which stretch northwardly to



MOUNTAINS OF MONTANA

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Alaska, and southwardly to Panama and the Andes of South America. High, bright, and pleasing is the city of Denver, with a bracing atmosphere reminding us who have been there, of the Peruvian Andine plateaux. Men are alert and brisk here, and they have turned the mineral wealth of their mighty mountains into matters of splendid buildings and wealthy storehouses. The rugged scenery which reveals itself in Colorado is worth the journey alone to observe it. The naked mountains and the rushing cañon-streams, alternating with broad stretches of oasis-like valley, overlooked by snow-crowned peaks, all overtopped by a clear, cloudless sky, are refreshing and elevating. In places the line winds along rock-faces cut in the steep walls of gorges, above which the sky is but a ribbon-strip, and the mountain torrent which almost washes the wheels of the train swirls by with its ceaseless voice mingling with the clanking tread of the iron wheels. And as we emerge from these natural ways between the mountains, we see, softened by the atmosphere of distance, dream-like façades of mighty cliffs and rock-formations of unique outline ; and, with a burst of sunlight, suddenly find ourselves perhaps in the "Garden of the Gods," with Pike's Peak looming up in distant beauty on its verge.

This Cordillera and desert region of America is, in many respects, the most interesting part of the continent. Unique works and unique industries have come to being, and we may well understand the epidemic of that "Western fever" which so strongly attacked the American in the days of the

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great migration to Oregon—a fever, moreover, which will run in our own veins in more or less degree, and which has not left the Americans yet. The very word “arid,” or “semi-arid” in this wonderful country has even come to have a monetary value! Observe this legend on the pamphlets and notices of the railway companies: “Fourth Dry Farming Congress”. It refers to an exhibition—the “International Exposition of Dry Farm Products”—in which every State having arid or semi-arid lands will participate. For we must recollect that whilst irrigation is the keynote to industry and the main science in this part of America, over thousands of miles of territory, a still more recent science in agriculture has come to being; that of “dry farming” by which, under the ingenious adaptation of crops to environment, and by special tilling of the soil, it is found that crops are produced without artificial irrigation, where earlier such would have been held impossible. This is another phase of the picturesque and almost romantic conquest of the desert, which America alone could have furnished the enthusiasm for. Indeed, in their new agricultural operations and their engineering works, whether hydraulic, or of transport, or of machinery to cope with, conquer, or use Nature’s forces to extract dollars, profit, and civilization, we shall develop a sense of strong admiration for this strenuous people, and claim our kinship with them.

Sunset in the desert. The rich twilight-hues of the American West are flung on sandy wilderness



COLORADO : GATEWAY TO THE "GARDEN OF THE GODS," AND PIKE'S PEAK

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and rugged escarpment. There is nothing to be seen but a primitive-appearing track of railway lines and sleepers, looking as if they had simply been laid down on the plain—which, as a matter of fact, they were, originally—at so many miles a day, to earn a Government subsidy. There are no fences to the line. Fences; what for: to keep out coyotes and carrion crows?—for nothing else lives here. The last hovel of the “section-hands,” as the maintainers of the permanent way are termed, with their melancholy and squalid surroundings have been left behind. There are no signs of man’s work near this ribbon of track, except old spoil-pits where soil was taken for the economically-built embankments; and perhaps lumps of coal here and there which some fireman or engine-driver has hurled at stray cattle or at the coyotes who sneak near the track.

These deserts of the West, especially those between the Rocky Mountains and the Sierra Nevada of California, in the region known as the Great Basin, formerly the great American Desert, are arid and waterless in great part. If we look at a hydrographic map of the United States we shall observe that this region is a “closed basin,” or hydrographic entity, having no outlet to the sea. The largest body of water contained in it is the Great Salt Lake, and there are other lesser lakes and rivers, whose means of exhaustion is only by evaporation and seepage. South of the Great Salt Lake this basin is more than 500 miles across, whilst from north to south it is above 700 miles long, extending from the watershed of

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the Columbia River southwards into Mexico. A portion of its lower extremity is much below the level of the sea. As we gaze out over this arid region from the comfortable seat of our dining car as the train speeds along, we shall observe what a hopeless appearance it presents. Great flat wastes of dry soil, clothed sparsely with grey sage-brush, bounded by stony hills which stretch away in endless monotony to the horizon, whilst the primitive-looking railway track is the only object which relieves it. Or, awakening in the early morning and looking out of the window of our snug pullman berth we observe the gaunt arms of the giant cactuses, like spectres rising from the plain, with a red disk of a sun appearing above the horizon. To many perhaps there seems nothing of use or beauty here, but observation and knowledge reveal much both of unique beauty and—if we know anything about American or other deserts—some conception of its use. For these same hopeless wastes, in many cases contain vast latent agricultural wealth in fallow soil. Some portion of these hopeless-looking plains are alluvial deposits, containing the valuable fertile constituents of the rocks, sorted out through the ages and deposited here, only waiting man's ingenuity to profit by it. Further, there is the wealth of metaliferous minerals in those hard, blue, cruel-looking rocky ranges, of which from time to time we get a glimpse on the horizon as the train speeds along. This horizon changes every moment, for the twisting and turning of the line to avoid this or that hill, or to cross some ravine at its narrowest portion,



IN THE YELLOWSTONE PARK : A GEYSER. NORTHERN PACIFIC RAILWAY COMPANY

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constantly changes our outlook. These Western lines, as before stated, present a primitive appearance to the European traveller. But they are generally efficient, although a "wash-out" is a frequent occurrence, when terrific rainstorms cover the whole country-side, in certain situations, with rushing torrents. If we sojourn long in the West we shall become accustomed to see festoons of rails hanging between isolated pieces of embankment, or from bridge abutments, as a result of the earthwork having been carried away. The history of the original building of some of these lines is interesting. Miles of line were constructed in a day, in some instances. One railway was constructed originally by four enterprising Americans, without capital, by the method of building a few miles of line and then mortgaging it to obtain funds to build the next stretch! This was the American spirit which conquered the desert and opened a highway to the West. The British engineer may be tempted to hold these lines up to criticism, and to point to the solid railway work done in India by his own hands. But he will doubtless recollect that conditions are very different. Here there was no population; it was necessary to shut your eyes, economize your funds, and at all hazards string the line across the continent. As a further tribute to the genius of the American people do not let us forget that the first trans-continental railway line and telegraph was being built during the Civil War, and were completed soon afterwards, in 1869. This was the Union Pacific.

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In one part of our journey here we are carried across a portion of the Great Salt Lake for miles, the water on either hand washing the viaduct, and proving a refreshing change after the drifting dust and alkali of the deserts around this singular hydrographic area. Our recollection of this region will embody desert wastes, blue lake and cloudless sky, fertile irrigated plantations and oases, where beautiful and luscious fruits and verdant fodder flourish upon tracts where, formerly, the arid sand stretched uncompromisingly without living being upon its desolation. There, to the South, is the great Mormon city, and as the train prepares to depart we may imagine that yonder hurrying passenger is pressed by some "avenging angel" from the city with the great tabernacle. There is always a certain idea of almost Oriental wicked picturesqueness about this community—before we have seen it; but it vanishes when we observe that the people are only ordinary practical Americans.

In this South-western part of America we enter a region, in Arizona and New Mexico, of much interest, from several points of view. It was the home of a primitive people of some ideas of civilization; the Cliff-dwellers and others. Here we find the Cliff-dwellings and *pueblos*, as also the remains of those prehistoric people who constructed canals for irrigation purposes and cultivated the land under that system. If we go South we enter Mexico; the home of the still more developed ancient civilization of the early Mexicans. Whilst it would be out of place here to go into the archæological



GRAND CAÑON OF THE ARKANSAS, COLORADO : OBSERVATION CAR ON THE DENVER AND RIO GRANDE RAILROAD

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COLORADO : MOUNT OF THE HOLY CROSS

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aspect of these matters it may be considered reasonable to suppose that all these evidences of ancient civilization are links in the chain of migration of man from Asia, via Bering Strait, down the western side of North America, through Mexico and Central America to Peru. Indeed, in many parts of the Cordilleran region of the New World we are positively transported into an Egyptian atmosphere; whilst, partly no doubt from prehistoric times, partly from the stamp of the Spaniards and their Moorish architecture and customs, we have cities whose surroundings and atmosphere are those of the Holy Land, all through Mexico and Peru. I have dwelt somewhat on this aspect of American life in former books.¹ Nowhere, perhaps, in the world shall we find the old and the new in such startling juxtaposition as in these regions of Western North America—the primitive Indian and his squaw, wrapped in their blankets, the slow-moving Mexican *peon* set beside the railways and cities. Nearly all this huge region of the West belonged formerly to Mexico, which under Maximilian was the third largest empire in the world, we shall recollect; and of it the Anglo-American of the United States “eased” their neighbours in the war. It was all part of New Spain, and the stamp of Iberia is still over it, and doubtless always will be, in more or less degree; and as we look upon the land, the locomotive—which has just stopped at some wayside *pueblo* station, amid a collection of adobe huts,

¹ See my “Mexico,” “Peru,” “The Great Pacific Coast,” and “The Andes and the Amazon.”

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wattle huts, maize-eating Mexican Indians, slouching secretive-looking Mexicans with their singular atmosphere of mediaeval times—seems but a momentary item in its life. Indeed it is so, in fact, for we step on board our pullman platform as the hoarse whistle sounds, and in a moment the red blankets and mediaeval people are left in undisputed possession, as the train bears us away towards the far horizon, and leaves them gaping or indifferent.

In the South-west corner of the United States, in this region we are describing, is what may be termed one of Nature's greatest palettes. This is the "Painted Desert". Here are thousands of square miles where the rocks and earth are coloured in hues of red, grey, green, crimson, pink, and yellow ; and cutting through it is the Grand Cañon of the Colorado, an awful, splendid abyss, with walls a mile high. Do not expect, however, to observe all these marvels from the observation car. You will have to journey by more strenuous methods. Far to the North is another of the strange scenic results of natural forces, in the famous Yellowstone region, with its volcanoes of boiling mud, its geysers, and its great petrified trees. Volumes of hot water are thrown into the air by a hundred of these natural steam jets, sometimes to the height of 250 feet. More than 4,000 hot springs and steam vents are encountered in the Yellowstone Park ; which is a national scenic playground and resort, 3,300 square miles in area, at a considerable elevation in the Rocky Mountains. The cañon of the Yellowstone River is one of the most remarkable



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of the mountain-chasms of America. Yet another of the strange regions of this great desert basin is that upon the Colorado River, nearer to its estuary, where rich alluvial lands below sea-level are being brought under cultivation in a remarkable way, by the United State Reclamation Service. The hydrographic and climatic features of this region transport us to Mesopotamia and the Nile.¹

A marked change awaits us as we leave the "great American Desert" and approach and ascend the Sierra Nevada, the Californian Cordillera. We rise from the desert of Sahara into Switzerland. Indeed an enthusiastic Canadian railway pamphlet—for the Sierras and the Rocky Mountains are equally Canada's heritage, farther North—speaks of fourteen Switzerlands rolled into one! From the grey sage-brush plains, the treeless stony hills, the shimmering heat-horizon, we rise in our now groaning pullman up steep rugged mountain slopes, clothed with coniferous trees, intersected by roaring torrents, overhung by mighty cliffs, from whose giddy summits we have far-reaching glimpses of worlds beyond, of which we had never dreamt during our sleepy semi-tropic journeyings over the Sahara below. The quiet beating of the locomotive's exhaust, and the regular tread of the train's wheels has given place once more to a grinding and straining and panting, as the long string of pullman cars passes round curves and ascends the "loops" and spirals which conduct it to the summit of the snowy Sierra. Darkness in the midst of daylight,

¹ See my book "The Great Pacific Coast".

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all suddenly, comes upon us ; what is it ? We have entered the snow-sheds, forty miles of wooden tunnels through which the line finds security from the winter avalanches, the snow-slides, which pour with destructive force down the mountain sides, passing harmlessly over the structure to play havoc with the forests and crags below.

Of California, a first glimpse of which golden land we obtain from the summit of the Sierras, it would not be possible to speak at much length : the subject requires a volume to itself.¹ California is a broad strip of land or series of valleys between the mountains and the Pacific Ocean, stocked with almost everything conducive to man's wealth and happiness, and dowered with a climate such as has made it an objective point for the tourist and home-seeker from all parts of the world. Here, kind reader, you will find much to make life happy—if it is happiness you seek (and if there really is such a thing). You will retain recollections of snow-topped mountains, rising above fruitful vales carpeted with orange-groves, vineyards, prune-orchards and flower-plantations, all served by brimming irrigation-ditches which conduct the water of mountain streams on to what was once the face of an arid desert, such as we passed in the region on the other side of the Sierras. California is also a land of gold, as every one knows, but gold has become quite secondary to horticulture. The wealth of the soil and the streams has been translated into

¹I have described the State somewhat fully in "The Great Pacific Coast".



PACIFIC COAST: GLACIERS ON MOUNT RAINIER

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terms of beautiful cities, splendid buildings, sea-ports, sumptuous hotels, electric railways, theatres, museums, luxurious homes, and all the adjuncts with which the Anglo-Saxon so rapidly surrounds himself. The first house was built in San Francisco in 1835, gold was discovered in 1848 and California was admitted to the Union—being lost to Mexico by the war—in 1850. Since then all those stately cities along the great central valley of the San Joaquin River have come to being; its network of railways and its wonderful garden-cities which send their oranges to all parts of the world.

The people of San Francisco do not like to be reminded of it, but three years ago they received a terrible notification that danger and tribulation in one form or another inevitably attend prosperity and wealth, for “the earth shook and trembled and a great smoke arose”; and a modern Abraham, standing upon the hills, would have witnessed the awful destruction of this city by the sea, in as many minutes or hours as it had taken years to raise up. Earthquake and fire broke and ruined the city. The strata of the Cordillera moved, and the buildings gave way before the tectonic cataclysm. Then—scarcely had the smoke cleared away—there followed what must be looked upon as the most remarkable feat of building in the history of the world. Within three years San Francisco was raised up anew, in even greater splendour than before; and the white, gleaming tower buildings are again thronged with busy men. There they stand, unique works of man’s hands, and they may stand there

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through the centuries—or they may fall again tomorrow! For the San Franciscan people, working on some undefined optimistic law of probabilities, have built their houses up again, with the same persistence that the ant-army employs, after we have inadvertently knocked ruin to an ant-heap in a Western desert, with our horse's hoofs! Whether it is wisdom or folly it were hard to say, but admiration of American genius and energy will be the traveller's principal sentiment as he contemplates this beautiful City by the Golden Gate.

San Francisco risen from its ashes, has been a spectacular incident in the life of the United States. A great fête was organized in October, 1909, and a pageant, in which ships of many nations took part in San Francisco's splendid bay: that great inland sea which was long hidden from the early voyagers, with its narrow entrance of the Golden Gate. The fête was termed the Portola festival. Portola was one of those early Spanish *comandantes* who were sent out by the Mexican Viceroy to take possession of these Californian territories. It will be recollected that Drake sailed up the coast and took possession of it for England under the name of New Albion, but it is disputed that he discovered the Golden Gate. The fête, commemorating the completion of the new city, was carried out with great enthusiasm. "Being truly cosmopolitan and accustomed to the festivals of many nations, from the Chinese New Year to St. Patrick's Day, San Francisco threw up her hat and hurrahed. The scene on the bay, in the bright noon sunlight, was a

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beautiful one. English, Italian, Japanese, Hollanders, had dressed their warships with many-coloured bunting, and the air fluttered with colour when, at the stroke of noon . . . their guns were fired in salute, enveloping each cruiser in clouds of white smoke, above which their flags waved in the sunlight. . . . Gaspar de Portola will return to the bleak mists of the Pacific, whence he came, amid scenes which in glamour and revelling will transcend all of the magnificence and splendour of the pageantry and untrammelled fiesta that has rendered San Francisco and its half million guests bereft with amazement and admiration during the last four days. . . . The city has already gone the limit. To-day and to-night it will get in touch with the infinite. The lid is off. California will live again.”¹

The newspaper from which the above enthusiastic extract is taken, went on to congratulate its readers upon the splendid public order that had been maintained, which it stated was in great contrast with the “broken heads and the crowded morgues and hospitals of London or New York” [*sic*] upon such occasions! Here we have a touch of that singular provincial jealousy which is shown between city and city in the United States, as described elsewhere, and also a touch of Anglophobia. The reference to London excites in us no surprise if we know San Francisco; the Press of which city has generally been instigated by its Irish-American proprietors to a certain amount of Anglophobia; which

¹ “San Franciscan Chronicle,” 23 Oct., 1909.

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is a pity. But we of Britain can have nothing but admiration for the splendid people as regards the characteristics which have built up, like a marvellous dream, this beautiful and costly city in so short a space. God grant we may not hear again the rumble of some menacing earthquake within its hills!

In San Francisco we can throw off all feeling of provincialism. We are face to face with the Pacific Ocean, wherein the sun sets and leaves a shining path to Asia. To the north lie Oregon, Washington, and the Pacific front of the British Empire—British Columbia—with all its wonderful possibilities just coming to our knowledge. Northward still is Alaska, a country of future, also, notwithstanding its glaciers. Southwards is the gentle land of Southern California, far-famed of tourist and health-seeker, and below that lies the great Spanish-American world, from Mexico and Panama to Peru and Chile: whose civilization and people have yet to play a great part within these regions Farthest West.



THE PACIFIC COAST: PART OF SAN FRANCISCO, FROM A "SKY-SCRAPER."

CHAPTER VI

THE AMERICAN CITIES

New York—Its “sky-scrapers”—Construction thereof—Their architecture—Greater New York—Population—Foreigners—City railways—Rapid transit—The elevated railways an abomination—East side and West side—Flat life and “race-suicide”—American and English gardens contrasted—“Mine and thine” in America—“Trespassers will *not* be prosecuted”

WHEN, after six days buffeting with the Atlantic, the steamer reaches that yellow, foam-fringed beach of Sandy Hook, facing the open Atlantic; passes it and enters the Narrows, as the passage between the Richmond and Brooklyn shores is termed, and takes its now peaceful way through the Upper Bay towards the mouth of that river or fiord which the English explorer Henry Hudson discovered in 1609, we are inclined to rub our eyes and wonder if those great white tower-buildings upon the near horizon, away over the water still, are real or imaginary. But before us a rock arises from the wide channel, and upon it a colossal figure with a torch (with a great arc-light at night) stands up to remind us of Liberty; and as we pass it our eyes are attracted to gossamer-looking suspension bridges, spanning the East River, which comes down

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from round the island upon which those white towers of New York appear.

The general impression gained on approaching this great entrepôt of the Western world is one of amplitude and extension, and the crisp foam of Sandy Hook, the giant statue, the gossamer bridges and the cliff-towers on the shore blend into a pleasing impression as we recollect it, whilst the giant liners in the bay, or threading their way down it with their prows to Europe, fill in the picture of movement in this aperture of the New World; this hive-entrance around which the dwellings of its human occupants are clustered, on every shore; where a few centuries ago solitude reigned.

The ponderable mass of New York is its great office buildings, which rise to an altitude scarcely attempted since the tower of Babel. These great structures are now among the world's well-known wonders, and the traveller will shortly cease his examination of them, and become accustomed to them, as he does with the presence of mountains. They are admirable examples of the engineer's ingenuity and knowledge, and of the modern combination of steel and stone; and if other reflections presently occur to us concerning them we shall never lose our pleasure in their company as man's structures.

These great buildings are principally clustered about the lower end of Manhattan Island, upon which New York proper is situated, rising from the congeries of streets, often narrow, and spreading up along Broadway, which busy avenue cuts through



NEW YORK: THE LOWER END OF BROADWAY

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the heart of the city and is lined for miles with structures only less important. This district of the great office buildings is known to the New Yorker as "down-town"; much as the Londoner would speak of "the City". Here in these steel-built dizzy, marble-lined structures are the myriad offices of a myriad undertakings; the headquarters of enterprise all over the great continent which spreads out to the West, and of many trans-Atlantic businesses besides. The number of office blocks of great height, all close to each other in this part of New York, is remarkable: and the foreigner who beholds them and the innumerable offices and suites of offices which they contain may well ask himself what in the world this portion of mankind finds to do here, to occupy so many business cells. For many of these buildings contain fifteen and twenty stories, and even more; embodying a thousand or more offices in some cases. But we shall soon observe that the development of office-luxury is eminently American. Large companies occupy whole floors, whilst even much smaller concerns always have their suites. An American with a project in his head (and there are none who are without) and sufficient dollars in the bank to pay a quarter's rent (and sometimes without them) forthwith takes an office or offices in one of the huge blocks, puts his name on the door, engages a typewriter girl, and proceeds, in the way known only to Americans, to expand his business. You may find him there to-day; but in some cases if you call again next week he has gone, and there is another name on the door.

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Let us explore one of these wonderful hives of usury. As we enter the ground-floor from the street (in winter through a revolving door which keeps in the heat) we are confronted on one side of the handsome entrance hall with a huge array of elevators, or lifts, perhaps a dozen of them in the largest buildings. The captain or official in charge of the elevator men signals the moment of departure of each elevator; some of which are "local" and others "express"; that is, some stop at all the floors, whilst others only stop at the tenth, fifteenth, or twentieth. An incessant clashing of iron gates and gentle whirring of wire cables greets our ears, and we are rapidly carried up to our destination, as floor after floor flashes by, with glimpses of marble corridors and the glass-panelled, gold-lettered doors of offices—the myriad cells of this droneless hive. There are always staircases to these buildings, but if we look at their marble slabs we shall find them unscratched. Who would walk up and down them? Near the sky is a floor devoted to lavatories, replete with every appliance that modern sanitary science can think of; and sometimes barbers' shops. From the roof, if one obtains permission to go into its specially constructed observatory, or from the highest windows, a view is commanded of city, bay, and surrounding country, as from a mountain-top; whilst the black dots of men in the street below move with the singular appearance which looking down from above gives.

Let us glance at the name-boards, or pass along the corridors. We shall find representatives of

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every profession or business under the sun, in any given building, from a "manicure-parlour" to the office of a bridge-building company; from a lawyer to a doctor; from a steel or boot trust, or a Tammany sub-office, to the headquarters of a missionary society. From them all the busy clack of the typewriter comes; or the constant ringing of telephone bells; whilst messenger boys and clerks hurry in and out with urgent messages. Postmen with "U.S." on their uniforms constantly deliver letters—for your average American business man has an enormous mail—and as constantly, clerks from the various offices place letters and parcels in the special chutes marked "U.S. Mail," which run from the top to the bottom of the building and empty into the depository below. Often the interior of the building is beautifully lined with panelling and marble cornices and slabs, whilst the wrought iron or brass of the elevator shaft and staircases of itself is a work of modern art. Such mural form is here as Solomon never dreamed of!

And what of the construction of these great palaces of pelf? Let us cut a section through one of them for a moment, or mark it in the making, for there are always some being built. What do we see? Great pillars of iron and steel, built up of plates, bolts and rivets, quickly rising, story after story. Hung upon them and upon their cross girders and braces is a veneer of stone slabs or terracotta, and their floors are cunningly fashioned as flat arches of wedge-shaped bricks, or of mighty slabs of concrete.

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But this splendid hive is not only a shell ; it has a complete "nervous system," in which the senses of sight, touch, hearing are magnified a thousand times beyond those of the body of the human ant which gives it origin. That is to say, each building has its own electrical installation, for light, power ; its telephone system, its elevators for men and goods, its heating apparatus. It is, in brief, an entity where to touch a button or take up a receiver is to open ears and mind to the throbbing of the world for a thousand miles away.

As we have seen, these buildings are constructed of columns and girders, all of rolled steel, bolted and riveted together. Cast iron is never used, except in short compression members of the great framework. Below the pavement are basements where the electric and heating machinery and boilers are established. The foundations of these buildings almost invariably rest upon wooden piles, driven for fifty or sixty feet into the subsoil, for whether in New York, Chicago or San Francisco, the solid rock is not sufficiently near the surface to be used as a base. In some cases, however, steel caissons are sunk, and filled with concrete. Exteriously these great structures are not without beauty. A special type of architecture has been evolved : the lower floors, resolving themselves into a base, treated in a more pronounced fashion ; then for ten or more stories rises the plain façade, relieved only by its symmetrically placed windows ; whilst above, a species of giant entablature or frieze is formed of several stories, of bold fashioning ;



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NORTHERN PACIFIC RAILWAY

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the whole surmounted by a conspicuous cornice. Some of their buildings are, in effect, handsome and striking, with an excellent air of proportion, especially when they stand alone or with sufficient width of street or square around them to enable the beholder to gather their general form. Go where we will we shall find these remarkable buildings. They rear their heads on the Atlantic shore ; in the lake cities—Chicago, Buffalo and others ; in the Middle West upon the Mississippi or at St. Louis ; in the semi-tropic land of California beside San Francisco's Golden Gate, or the summer city of Los Angeles ; whilst the cold water of Oregon reflects them, as at Seattle and Portland.

Greater New York, as the city with its included suburbs is called, consists of the Borough of Manhattan—a Dutch name denoting its origin—which occupies Manhattan Island ; the Borough of the Bronx and of Brooklyn ; of Queens, with Long Island City ; and Richmond Borough on Staten Island ; all separated by water from the real New York, just as parts of London in much less degree are separated by the river. But the hub and kernel of New York is its area on the southern end of Manhattan Island, as already described ; that small point on the earth's surface which was destined to be covered with the singular “forest” of sky-scrapers. We shortly observe that New York City grew upwards, possibly, because it could not grow laterally, as far as its great business centre is concerned ; so that the sky-scrapers are the outcome of geographical conditions, to some extent.

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This City of Greater New York has a population of somewhat more than 4,000,000 inhabitants, according to the last estimates. Its remarkably cosmopolitan character is shown by the fact that 35 per cent. of this total are foreigners, the principal of which are in about the following proportions:—

Germans	390,000
Irish	350,000
Russians	185,000
Italians	175,000
English and Scotch	110,000
Negroes	70,000
Chinese	10,000

Greater New York is the second city in the world in financial and commercial importance, ranking only after London: which, indeed, it is not without aspirations to overtop in the future. Whether this will be time must show. It is not impossible that its population might grow to exceed that of Britain's capital, and that the volume of its business might equally pass the London mark. But it is doubtful if New York could ever be the equal of London in the main essentials of true civilization, or not, at least, until the commercial age has passed.

As a seaport and harbour, New York must be considered one of the finest in the world. Its waters accommodate the largest vessels afloat, and are landlocked. The growth of the city is marvellous, when it is recollected that in 1765—when the delegates of the thirteen colonies met to protest against the Stamp Act and to advance the doctrine

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of "no taxation without representation," with its historic consequences—it had a population of only 20,000 inhabitants, which was less than its sister cities of Boston and Philadelphia. The great value of the city land may be gathered from the fact that a site at the corner of Broadway and Wall Street, which might be looked upon in the light of the Bank of England site, changed hands recently at £120 per square foot : whilst the assessable value of the city's taxable property is one-twentieth of the whole of the United States.

This great city, morning and evening, witnesses a mighty rush to and from suburban homes. How are the people brought thither and carried thence ? There are three systems of mechanical conveyance ; the surface lines or street-cars, the subway, or underground railways, and the elevated railways. All perform their useful functions, and the system of exchanges permits the traveller to get about from one part of the great area to the other with a minimum of difficulty and expense. The underground railways are of very recent construction, modelled somewhat after those of London. As to the elevated railways they were, and in some respects are, the greatest carriers of passengers of any system, and—again in some respects—they are also the greatest of the abominations of desolation possessed by any city. These railways consist of iron columns and girder-structures running all down certain streets. The noise of the trains overhead is appalling : the appearance of the structures hideous, and the darkening and dirtying of the unfortunate

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streets down which they run depresses the mind of the foot-passenger whose business may have called him reluctantly to tread them. As we journey along in the elevated trains we have a full view of the domestic operations taking place in the houses on both sides of the street, for the carriages are at the level of the bedroom windows and a biscuit-toss away. In the busy hours of the day, morning or evening, we shall have full view, for we are journeying as "strap-hangers" a species of locomotion well known to the New Yorker, for there are not half enough seats for the passengers at the "rush" hours. Suddenly, as the train goes along, we are thrown from our feet and deposited in the lap of some seated passenger. Is it a collision? No, it is only the formation of the railway, which has taken a turn at right angles here to go down another street, and a curve of so short a radius has upset our equilibrium. No doubt when the savagery of commercial and municipal strife has cleared away, some day, these elevated railways will be torn down and their dirt and clamour, as well as the democratic discourtesy of their officials—who appear to regard passengers as herds to be penned and driven rather than human beings—become things of a fevered past. For the rest, they are cheap and speedy means of getting about, from the city to the suburbs, and, apart from the æsthetic matters against which I have animadverted, not disagreeable means of transit.

A great portion of New York, lying to the north of the sky-scrapers' district, consists of vast

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regions of streets and houses, largely dwelling-houses and shops. To the right of Broadway, going up that great thoroughfare, lies the "East Side" in which are extensive districts of poor streets and houses—mean, drab, poverty-stricken, hopeless, criminal often, including the famous Bowery. On the left is the "West Side," the region of middle-class houses and, in places, of millionaire luxury. Between these two regions there is a great gulf fixed, just as there is in the City by the Thames; not a topographical, but a social gulf, and the rich man in torment in Hades who possibly dwelt in the one is as far removed as was Lazarus in the bosom of Abraham, who might perhaps on earth have occupied the other. The New Yorker must have a good memory for figures, is a reflection which occurs to us as we traverse the dwelling-house region of Upper New York; for he may live at flat 25 (or other), number 1153 (or other) West 164th Street (or other). But he will be careful not to forget the "W" (west) for there is a corresponding street and number with "E" (east) before it on the other side, but the difference brought about by the cardinal point is as great as that (I mean no irreverence) between Abraham's bosom and Hades, as before quoted. Even in the New World men would not hear, "although one went from the dead"!

These and the outlying portions of New York and its associated boroughs do not offer any particular field of interest to the foreigner: he will find, in most cases, only a replica of dreary areas of

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brick and mortar of British or other European cities, without their historical associations. There are, of course, handsome public buildings, avenues, and large parks, in their places; and beyond the city proper, reached by the elevated and electric railways, are suburban districts of luxurious homes, well built and surrounded by gardens of turf, flowers and shrubs: which attest the wealth and taste of their owners. But the flats, apartment-houses and private hotels are the feature of American residential life most in evidence to the visitor: and this growing custom of a circumscribed habitat has been greatly inveighed against by political economists, as giving rise to serious defects in American social development. "Flat-life" and "race-suicide" are held to be synonymous.

There is one feature of American suburban or country residence, however, which arrests the observer's attention, in contrast with those of Britain. The Englishman sets his house far back from the road, surrounds it with a beautiful garden—lawns, shrubs, flowers—and encloses it from the public gaze with a high, impenetrable wall or hedge. The American also makes beautiful gardens, but unlike his British progenitor does not erect an impenetrable barrier between him and the road. Without going too deeply into national characteristics in the matter, it will occur to us that the Englishman is a more selfish individual than the American. Providence has given him a beautiful "vineyard," but no one ever sees it except himself and his immediate family. The American, on the



THE NEW SAN FRANCISCO : A HOTEL

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contrary, loves not such selfish privacy, and suffers nothing that the eyes of the passer-by may see his garden and grounds. The residential quarters of many of the great cities of the United States, from New York to San Francisco; from Philadelphia or Minneapolis or Chicago to Los Angeles are beautiful, in many cases, with their gardens open to the view of the foot-passenger. In England, all that the eyes of the ordinary landless town-dweller ever enjoy of his countrymen's gardens is a momentary glimpse through some fast-closed gate! Of course we know that reserve and privacy are dear to the Briton; just as publicity is to the American, but between the British cave-dweller and the American troglodyte the balance in the respect of good nature is lightest in Britain.

We shall indeed be struck by the less rigid ideas of ownership; of "mine and thine" in America, both in a good and a bad sense. We shall not see in the New World those amiable notice-boards which are so constant a feature of British landscape, and by which your Briton shows his tyrannical feudal spirit in the possession of the land: "Trespassers will be prosecuted" is not a common legend, affixed to tree-trunks in America. I have observed the country side from New York to San Francisco, but I never saw the humane announcement such as is displayed at times in Devonshire, Middlesex or elsewhere, of "Keep out—all dogs will be shot!" Nor is the naturalist, the landscape painter, or the lover of nature generally, in studying the beauties of his country-side, reminded of modern

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“brotherly love,” such as, in England, is expressed or displayed by woodland and rivulet, of “Man traps and spring guns”! In America, moreover, a poor man would not be sent to penal servitude for stealing a loaf for a starving family, nor a boy to prison for robbing an orchard, nor would a humble country dweller be persecuted by some righteous J.P. because he so far forgot the majesty of the feudal law that he knocked over a rabbit or a pheasant.

Whilst it is a comfortable thing for the traveller to be a free-lance, and to owe no obligation to any name or country which would bind him to support the defects of any class or race: it is, nevertheless, a hard thing to hold the balance of civilization between one nation and another; and, generally, our latest reflection will be one of satisfaction that the one exists to off-set the other.

CHAPTER VII

CITY LIFE IN AMERICA

Comparison of English and American cities—New York and London—Predatory materialism—God and Mammon—Sky-scrapers and churches—American hotels—Temperatures—Chicago—Hot spell—Ice and Ice-Trusts—Cold—Rapid growth—Spanish-American types in contrast—The Latin “fringe”—Memories of the Revolution—The Battery—Lack of roads—Bad roads—Depressing suburbs—Rivalry between Cities—Chicago and St. Louis—San Francisco—“Graft” East and West—California, wine and oranges—The conquest of the desert—Philosophical considerations

It is inevitable for the Englishman to compare New York with London, as it is for the American to examine the latter in the light of the former, on his visits thereto: although mature reflection will show how difficult any rational comparison is, in view of the different character of the two cities. To begin with the general appearance. New York has, as its principal offering, its mighty commercial, architectural and engineering structures of tall buildings and great bridges. London, on the other hand, opens out fresh subtle delights on every side. New York is but a chapter: London is a whole volume. The most striking condition about London, to the foreigner, or indeed to the Briton himself, who enters it again after years of sojourn in

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America, is the quiet air of solidity and non-aggressive wealth which pervades its endless streets and squares, in its western part: truly reflecting a British character of gentle practicability. New York, as we ascend her splendid Broadway, strikes on our mind immediately with a clanging note of unrest and material strife. In London, tall ancient churches are intermixed with the more modest, yet not less wealthy or enterprising, business buildings; and grey halls and columns rear upwards in patriotic remembrance: the expression of years and of tribulations. New York, in some of its phases, seems the expression and result of a predatory materialism; its sky-scrapers blare heavenward with a brazen aspect—or so we shall think in some of our moods—seemingly unfearful of some thunderbolt of wrath which might be directed against them from above. The towers and domes of London have for their foundation the blood and tears of the ages: history has purged them partly, of iniquity, or at least has chastened them; London's suffering and punishment seems past—such tribulation as no man or nation shall escape; that of New York is yet to come. The domes and spires of London, dedicated to God, overtop the towers of Mammon and ward off thunderbolts of wrath; but New York's towers of Mammon rise far above the scanty spires of her temples, dwarfing and crushing them into insignificance.

There are other cities in the United States against which we might feel inclined to launch a jeremiad, and to exclaim that the sky-scrapers seem

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to menace the churches ; such as Chicago, Buffalo, St. Louis, San Francisco, and others, but New York is the key to the continent : splendid, wondrous in many respects ; and whilst reserving the observer's right to criticize, we must exercise that to praise. New York is a business city : it could scarcely have the attributes of London, where business is not the only dominant note. The sheer commercialism of New York has at least nothing of the hypocritical about it. It is a big market ; and men do not buy and sell with prayers on their lips, nor ever will. Nor do we find the city churches of London often crowded with business men ! The present character of New York will last as long as predatory buying and selling lasts. Perhaps that may not be as long as we generally imagine.

As regards comforts and conveniences for natives and travellers, it would be difficult to hold the balance between the two cities, and the inhabitant of each will not be far wrong if he claims priority for his own. New York is a city of many hotels, and as far as modern appliances and luxury go it would be impossible to surpass them. Some of them are veritable palaces ; but the Londoner will miss the sense of privacy and good taste of his own hostelries. The jarring advertisements, the cigar stands, the newsvendors, are all much more in evidence, and the insolence which the American servant imagines to be the sign of equality pervades everything. In America the test of comfort and excellence in the hotels is the price ; in England accommodation may be excellent, yet cheap. Modesty

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and superiority do not easily go hand in hand in American hotel life : and this fact will be impressed upon us right across the continent. Democracy demands that you must pay for what you want ; nothing is given for nothing—not even courtesy.

The climate of New York and other cities is one of considerable extremes, from exceeding cold to torrid heat, at times, although under normal conditions it is healthy and agreeable. The periodical heat waves in July and August are on some occasions the causes of great distress and of death, especially among the poor. During the year 1909 the thermometer registered, upon some of the August days, 93° in the shade in New York, whilst Washington broiled under 100°, Philadelphia 98° and Chicago 96°. A day or so afterwards it rose in New York to 100° and 106° in the streets and offices, and the official maximum of 96°, recorded from the observatory on the top of a “sky-scraper,” was laughed at, by those who had the energy to laugh. Business was done in the great city coatless and hatless ; the soda-water fountains, those popular institutions of America, were unable to cope with the demand for their numerous kinds of iced drinks ; whilst ladies appeared in the streets in “Mother Hubbard” dresses ; these being a loose kind of garment made in one piece, rarely seen except in a sleeping-car, in fashionable New York. In Chicago, however, in hot weather, we may observe the comfortable fashion of women in the residential districts, who, having doffed their ordinary clothing (it is whispered) put on these easy



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garments and sit on the steps of their houses to catch the cool evening breeze. The heat of Chicago is like no other heat, and offers ample excuse for such deshabbille.

During the last hot spell in New York as many as 50,000 people took train to sleep upon the beach at Coney Island, one of the city's popular seaside resorts, facing the Atlantic breezes. As much as two dollars was paid for the use of the bathing pavilions there, by the oppressed crowd, for sleeping places; whilst men, women and children were carefully "penned off by the police," the Press informed us, "according to sexes, for sleeping on the beach". For, it is to be recollected, the police are extremely careful of the people's morals in America; as indeed the people themselves are (of each other's) at times! Busybodies, both official and civil type, take it upon themselves to enforce regulations such as the people of Europe would not tolerate, in a manner which invites somewhat cynical comment from the foreigner. These methods of the police are allied to that singular exercise of democratic tyranny which we have attempted to describe elsewhere. During the hot spell the wealthy people slept in motor cars in the parks in scores. But it is upon the poor that the suffering mainly falls, as ever; and upon that occasion an added misfortune came upon them from the suddenly inaccessible price of ice, whose supply is controlled by the "Ice Trust". This was partly ameliorated by the charitable attitude of the "New York Herald," which paper took upon itself to distribute free ice in the

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poor quarters of the city ; a task it undertakes on frequent occasions. The ice-supply for New York is principally a natural one, from the Hudson River and some of the rivers of Maine, but these are controlled by the Trust, which raises its prices at will, and has brought down execration upon its own head at times. It will be a matter for surprise to the foreigner that ice is considered so necessary, even to the poor, in America. But it is to be recollected that the drinking of iced-water (which the Englishman generally abominates) is an ingrained habit, so strong with the American as to amount to a necessity ; as are iced tea, iced soda, ice cream, and so forth. The day upon which the New York temperature registered 104° in the shade that of London was only 63°.

If extremes of heat in New York are trying, no less are the extremes of cold. Heavy snow and a thermometer below zero often make the winter in this city a terrible one for the poor. Although eleven degrees south of London, New York's winter is infinitely more severe, and for much longer periods. Of rain and fog, however, and sudden changes, New York suffers far less than the British Metropolis. But, to the Englishman who visits New York, the conditions of climate are accentuated by the American custom of overheating of houses and offices. You emerge from the high temperature of the sky-scraper offices—where indeed you have felt grilled alive—into the bitter cold of the streets : a sudden change both unpleasant and unhealthy. Apart, however, from these matters, the crisp cold

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and snow of American and Canadian winters is exhilarating and enjoyable, as before described.

The cities of the United States are like no other cities in the world. Here, in places, where almost within the memory of living man the desert or the forest stretched uncompromisingly, arise great rows of cliff-like, beautiful towers of man's art and static knowledge. Here where once—only in the time of our fathers—the Indian or the bison roamed, are hives of industry set down on plains, hill-slopes, or beside waterway; a chess-board form, looking, if viewed from a hill, like a beautiful finished toy. We mark rows of parallel streets, or rather parallel buildings, for in a bird's-eye view the streets are but threads—crossed by other parallels; the buildings rising to an altitude so ambitious as has never been reached since the tower of Babel.

The American cities are growing at a remarkable pace; especially those in the Middle West or Mississippi Valley, and upon the lakes. Greater New York, as we have seen, has some four million people. Chicago has two and one-tenth millions, Philadelphia, the Quaker City, one and a third millions, Boston, St. Louis (we trust neither will be offended from being coupled together) and Baltimore approach three-quarters of a million, San Francisco and Pittsburg have about half a million. Washington and Buffalo have more than a quarter of a million and the host of other cities of lesser size, all over the continent, have equal possibilities of growth. The splendid public institutions and expensive buildings encountered on every hand in

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American cities generally, attest the spirit of progress and intelligence of these people, and their general wealth. There is no precedent, anywhere in the world, for the growth of communities of this nature. Never have the natural resources of a country's soil been transformed in this manner, and in so short a period, into evidences of material wealth and civic prosperity; and as regards this phase of their life, the foreigner can have nothing but admiration for the American people.

The most interesting region of travel for the non-commercial foreigner is, of course, in the West. The Eastern cities, or indeed all American cities, are so much like each other with their many-storied buildings, their regular streets, electric street-cars and other characteristics, that we shall soon weary of examining them. They have not the individual charm of European places. It is not their fault; they are mainly creations of yesterday, beautiful and ingenious examples of skill and energy, but without the glamour of history and the imprint of humanity which causes the traveller never to weary in other lands. Moreover the purely Anglo-American type of city has little of the charm of accidental picturesqueness in its planning and execution, as we shall, by contrast, discover anew, when we cross the Mexican border and enter the old-world towns of Spanish-America. It is the old story—the commercial age. Also, fine buildings everywhere are too often disfigured by blatant advertisement boards; streets by masses of telegraph poles and electric light and trolley wires, whilst in

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the cañon-like depth of the streets between the sky-scrapers, in some cases, sun and air enters scantily. Of course, there are open spaces, and great parks and fine systems of boulevards ; but no Anglo-American town of modern type can compare with those of Mexico, Colombia, Peru, or others as picturesque centres of civic life. Around their *plazas* are revered objects—the church or cathedral and the dwellings of other authorities ; and the balconies, patios, barred windows and general mediaeval aspect are soothing and restful after the material atmosphere and somewhat overpowering structures of the American city. But it would be manifestly absurd to suppose that the latter type could be introduced into the Northern country ; the meridional regime into the septentrional land ; just as it would be absurd to urge that Spanish-America should adopt the Anglo-American architecture (although in some cases mistaken modernity-worshippers in Mexico seem to think so). In the city of Mexico there is already appearing an element of Anglo-American industrial structure ; which accords ill with the more dignified types of Spanish-Colonial architecture there. The Mexicans, if they are wise, will sternly set their faces against this importation from the North, and refuse to lose their own individuality and peculiar, attractive atmosphere in return for the doubtful boon of commercialism.

But far be it from us to echo the cheap, common sneer that the United States is without historical association, or that such is a fault. Moreover, what

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we have said about picturesqueness will be almost belied in some instances. There are not wanting sequestered towns of a peaceful, old-world aspect, or cities around some of whose quarters historical and patriotic memory linger lovingly to the American. The pastoral South holds many such scenes; whilst the West, it is to be recollected, is stamped with the seal of Colonial Spain in numerous places. Indeed, it is the Latin "fringe" generally, which picturesquely surrounds the United States—Canada and Quebec in the North-east, New Orleans and Florida on the South, and California on her own beautiful sunset shores. The great pageants which have recently taken place, that of California, described before, and the Hudson-Fulton celebrations of New York, were full of historical colour and the glamour of the past. Incidentally the brotherly reception accorded to the representatives of Britain's navy, who took part in this last, especially showed how strong is America's regard for her old Mother Country, and love of her history. New York, moreover, has historical associations—Dutch and British—of deep interest: much of grim recollection, indeed, there is to the Britisher, in the extremity of New York City, on the bay. Here is the Battery, where Fort Amsterdam stood, built in 1626 and demolished in 1787. On the day of the Declaration of Independence, 4 July, 1776, the statue of George III which stood there was hauled from its pedestal, melted down and cast into bullets! The railing round the Bowling Green circle dates also from pre-Revolu-

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tionary times ; and here is the site of the house which Cornwallis, Howe, and other British generals occupied ; as betokened by a memorial tablet. The Battery epitomizes a good deal in American history, and occupies an affectionate corner in the American mind. None will grudge it. I recollect an account—it was either actuality or a story, I do not know which—about an American colonel-adventurer who had suffered all kinds of persecution in what he described as some little “hell-cat” South American Republic. They had thrashed him and put him in prison, after the manner of those lands of “Liberty, Fraternity,” etc., created by Bolivar, in treating their political or other prisoners ; but he had escaped in hiding on board some hooker, and, landing in New York, he fell down on his knees and kissed the pavement stones of the Battery !

One of the conditions in the environment of town life in America, which is soon impressed upon the traveller, is that there is no “country,” in the English sense of the word. There are, of course, beautiful mountains, woods, and plains, but they are more or less inaccessible to the foot passenger. The lanes and roads which are such a soothing feature of the environs of English towns, where, in the limits of a morning stroll you may leave the houses behind and enter upon the open country, do not exist in America. The newly-arrived American in the British Isles possibly pictures the “little island” as “considerably settled up,” with towns close together throughout its area ; but he presently observes that he was wrong, and that it contains a

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hundred times more "country" than his own vast continent. Go where he will—Devonshire, Middlesex, Yorkshire—he can journey on foot away from the towns and wander among beautiful lanes and fields. This is only rarely to be found in America, even in the older districts. Why is this? The real reason can be summed up in a few words—America is a country where railways were made before roads. The old system of coach-roads and the network of highways and byways which are the main feature of the English countryside, never came into existence in America. Moreover, roads are a far more potent factor for true civilization than railways. The "railway age" in America will be looked back upon as one of marvellous development in the material world, but one which did not advance the interests of true civilization much, except that it was an inevitable phase of development towards something better.

If the above is true of North America, it is also marked in Mexico and South America to some extent. Roads in those countries are almost nonexistent—that is roads for vehicles—and between the pack-mule trail and the cheaply constructed railway there is no medium. As soon as you leave the paved footpaths of a Spanish-American city, you enter upon irregular tracks, ankle-deep in adobe dust, picturesque often; but you must go on horseback, for the foot-passenger in those communities not only suffers grave inconvenience from the condition of the track, but he loses caste. In Spanish-America the gentleman is a "Caballero,"

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which of itself sufficiently explains the philosophy of the road. As regards these countries, it must be recollected as some extenuation that they are Cordillera regions, and consequently road-building involves heavier work than in a land of the topographical structure of Britain. But even when we have allowed for this factor, we find the main reason is still the Spanish apathy to works of public utility. These conditions, however, do not weigh against road construction in the United States, or only in the Cordillera region; that is, the Rocky Mountains and territory to the West. In the older and more thickly settled States there is no excuse for the lack of good highways, which lays the United States people open to a charge of superficiality; and it is scarcely too severe to say that their roads are a disgrace to a civilized nation. However, the advent of the automobile has recently brought about a strong "good roads" movement.

We shall very early be struck by the unfinished appearance of town and country in the United States, whichever way we journey; and shall well understand how it is that our transatlantic kinsman, journeying through England, beholds with delight the cultivated or—as he terms it—park-like appearance of the British Isles. For, as before observed, there are few roads in America; the beauties of the English country lanes is unknown, and the old-world village we shall rarely see. Beyond the business centre of the city the stone or brick buildings and the private houses and gardens soon cease and are replaced by wooden houses and board

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“sidewalks,” or footpaths. To the eye of the foreigner, accustomed to the picturesque environment of his own country towns, these temporary-appearing habitations are inexpressibly dreary and depressing, and the slatternly negro population which ever forms the fringe of the community, adds the culminating note to this characteristic Americanism.

There is a singular spirit of rivalry, at times, especially in their newspapers, between the cities of the United States, which is a source of some amusement to the observant foreigner. When I was in Chicago some years ago, the papers of the enterprising city of St. Louis—city of phenomenal growth and activity—had fallen foul of Chicago, due partly, if I recollect rightly, to the plans of the Chicagoans for diverting their sewage from its natural watershed of Lake Michigan and running it into an affluent of the Missouri; and so discharging it past St. Louis into the Mississippi. This, in fact, was done by means of the Chicago drainage canal, whose building was rendered possible by the low water-parting of these two great hydrographic basins, as described elsewhere. Casting about for a point of attack, the St. Louis people denounced the Chicago water-supply, which they averred was “so impure that it might be cut with a knife”! The Chicago papers were not slow to respond, and they ungallantly commented (St. Louis is famous, among other things, for its boot factories) upon the size—according to them—of the feet of the women of St. Louis, which they declared to be exception-



RIVER VIEW AT ST. LOUIS, MISSOURI

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ally large! At the present time, however, neither of these contentions could be held up as being true, for statistics were brought forward showing that the female foot in the great Missouri metropolis was rather under than over average size; whilst as to Chicago's water supply this is afforded by a very remarkable piece of engineering work; the water being taken from Lake Michigan by a subaqueous tunnel which stretches out into the lake for several miles to its intake, in order to ensure purity of supply.

I have referred to this "gentle, neighbourly" gossiping habit of the American newspapers about each other's cities, in speaking of the reconstruction of San Francisco. Some of them reminded the city by the Golden Gate that at the moment of the beginning of the celebration of their great fête in honour of San Francisco's restoration, the President of the Republic, raising his glass at a banquet in his far-off home, at the moment of inauguration, drank success to San Francisco, "and may they make for clean civic government and the abolition of 'graft'!" Indeed this malady of "graft" is one of which each city is cognizant as its own sin, and is always pleased (or regretful) to be able to throw the reproach at each other. Thus, a San Franciscan paper¹ quotes an admonition against Boston, from a Brooklyn paper,² no doubt with gusto, as follows: "There has of late been an awakening of civic spirit in Boston. It seems that the good citizens of Boston

¹ "San Franciscan Chronicle," 23 October, 1909.

² "Brooklyn Eagle".

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became quite as shamefully absorbed in money-making as men within ten miles of Wall Street. The result was that the town was run by politicians, with an accumulation of debts and evils. Now the workers are striving for a general programme of municipal betterment, after the graft exposed by the Finance Committee has been rooted out. In November and December we shall sprout civic righteousness like wings!" As I have devoted a chapter to the description of this American malady of "graft" I will refrain from any further remarks on the sinister subject; inseparable from the life of American cities at present.

Between the Americans of "the East" and those of "the West" there exists a somewhat similar spirit as that between Britain and her colonies, or oversea possessions—a tinge of patronising superiority, mixed with admiration for their rapid progress and enterprise, by the older community, and a half-veiled jealousy, with respect and veneration at bottom, by the other. Moreover, just as the nature of the country changes as we go West, so does the character of the people and their life. The Eastern States, with their older settled communities, approximate in some respects more to the people of Europe in their ways and modes of thought. Luxury and poverty live cheek by jowl; the struggle for life is as keen as in Europe; the sufferings of the poor equally intense, the selfishness of the rich, as well as their charity, equally marked. Man is crowding closer and closer together on the Atlantic side of that huge continent, and is, indeed,

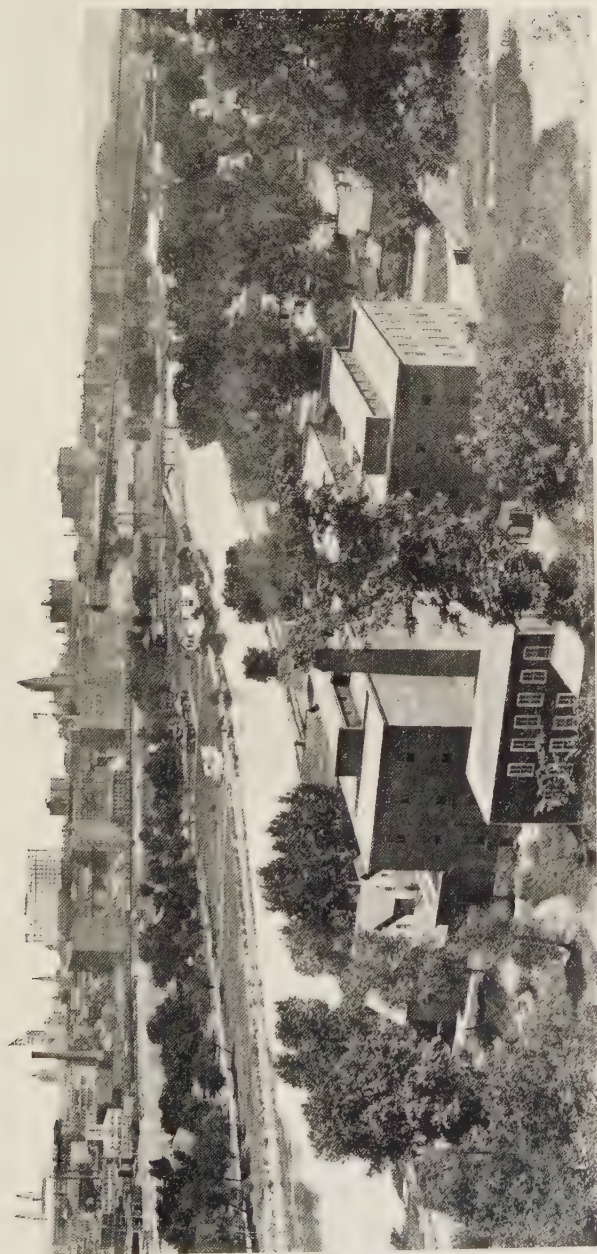
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in his social and economical life, inevitably reproducing the life of Europe. But as we journey in the track of the setting sun, the generous expanses of Nature produce a seemingly more generous disposition in man—a characteristic which becomes intensified in the far Western States. This feeling is typified in the matter of money. Wages are higher in the West, and money has less purchasing power as we approach the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific regions of Anglo-America. In the Eastern States the common copper cent and two cent pieces are the limit of currency and have a purchasing power for small articles; in the West the lowest current coin is the nickel five-cent piece, and in some cases the twenty-five cent piece. Indeed, the difference between East and West and the encroachment of the latter as it slowly passes over the continent to engulf the former—if the simile may be permitted—might be said to be measured by the use of the coins above described. This was brought home to me in New York and San Francisco, during my journeys in those cities. In the former the shivering street child or starving beggar asking alms of the passer-by gladly accepted the copper cent which one might bestow; in the streets of San Francisco, an able-bodied mendicant refuses, in response to his begging, a two-cent piece. “Can’t do nothing with this, master,” one of the unemployed remarked to me, and even the five cent “nickel” was scanned with a bad grace, in the hope that it might prove a “quarter” or twenty-five cent piece. Midway across the continent, where “East” and

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“ West ” overlap, both the copper and the nickel are common coin. Some things, however, are cheaper in California. You can buy splendid fruit at prices which are a revelation to the Englishman accustomed to the scarcity of that article often in his own land—a huge bunch of bananas or half a dozen “ navel ” oranges, yellow, and mighty in their size, for a “ nickel ” or a “ dime ” ; whilst there is something inspiring in a land—(especially after passing through half a dozen prohibition States) where you can enter a wine-shop and drink, for the sum of five or ten cents, a big beaker of native port, sherry or Zinfandel ! Hurrah for California !

Nothing can be more astonishing to the foreigner than the way civilization has taken its Westward way in the United States (and Canada). The dweller in the pretty, sleepy English country town cannot form any idea of it. How could he ? Like a brimming, irresistible flood-tide, civilization is advancing into the Western deserts, lapping the bases of the Cordillera—a human wave of astonishing energy and hope. There is nothing in Nature to compare it with, except, an incoming tide. But a tide presently recedes ; this flood of mankind does not, or, as far as we know, it shall not. First a thin, geometrical line is carved round the sphinxface of the mountains, and passes in neat ridges across the plains ; and a puny puffing machine fusses along it, pulling a train of toy cars—match-boxes—or that is what they look like from the mountain pass whereon our pioneer feet are standing. But it is the breach of the incoming tide, this thin



OUTSKIRTS OF ST. PAUL, ON THE MISSISSIPPI

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line of railway. Those "match-boxes on wheels" contain engineers, real estate agents, capitalists, miners, and all the chequered personnel of the "boom". Here they come in their dozens, followed by their thousands, all on the track which, only yesterday, some lean and weathered pioneer crawled, half hopefully, half despairingly, over. There are good and wicked among them. "The rod of the wicked shall not rest upon the lot of the righteous"; but the measuring rod soon lays off corner lots on the mirage-haunted plains and drives stakes of possession in the sand which none but the coyote or Apache claimed before. And presently great buildings appear; a stock exchange, a gambling saloon, a church.

"Wherever man erects a house of prayer,
The devil always builds a chapel there
And 'twill be found upon examination,
That the latter has the larger congregation!"

Truly an Infinite power must smile as it looks from above on this inevitable effort of mankind: smile encouragingly upon his unceasing conquest of the desert. Necessity and inclination, as inevitable as the flaming sword of Eden, send man forth to where he must earn his living truly by the sweat of his brow, and thus the earth is peopled.

CHAPTER VIII

AMERICAN TYPES AND TRAITS

Population—Limitation of families—Falling birth-rate—The feet of clay—Types of Americans—The “dapper-eel” type—Oaths and overalls type—The pot-bellied type—The pioneer type—The society man—Individuality lost—Money-getting similarity—The plutocrats—Society freaks—The butterfly ball—The goldfish ball—The mounted wedding breakfast—The intelligent baboon—The dogs’ banquet—The horse show—Women and horses—Foreign marriages—The American woman

THE population of the United States, as we have seen, has increased in extremely rapid ratio since the days of Independence, from 4,000,000 of the first census (1790) to about 90,000,000 in 1910. If we mark the centre of this population upon a map of the country for successive years we shall observe that it has moved steadily westward from the Atlantic coast region of New England, until it has reached the Mississippi. In that vast valley it will doubtless remain, and possibly will be—in conjunction with the great fertile Canadian regions which continue to the North—the future world-pivot as regards mass, of the industrial population of the globe. That is, of course, if the conditions of the past continue developing and not retrograding, as we are bound to suppose.

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The last proviso may never be necessary ; yet on the other hand there are certain elements which bid us consider it as a possibility. For the very conditions which have brought about the greatness of the United States, as regards the rapid increase of population, seems to be threatened now with something in the nature of restriction. Mankind poured into the country in the hopes of becoming rich. Having become rich they desire to retain ease and luxury ; and this has been translated into terms of limitations of families. At the present time statistics show that the main increase of population in the United States is due to the vigorous immigration from Europe ; for the American birth-rate is rapidly falling, owing, it is stated, to the condition known as “race suicide”. The immigrants who have poured in have been to a large extent of lower and peasant class ; people who are ignorant of or would not practise the limiting of their offspring, but a generation, or even a decade, teaches them the tenet of American civilization—not to bring children too freely into the world. Whether this tenet is to be condemned or commended must be left to philosophical and religious discussion. The human female, as well as the male, the more his or her mind advances along a certain line of intellectuality, will inevitably shrink from bringing children into the world which will be a tax on her body—even if she be wealthy—and a tax on her body and his resources if they be poor. On the one hand luxury, and on the other poverty, both induce this limitation ; and no doubt the truly

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civilized man and woman of any country, and their corresponding nation, will be those which practise the sensible moderation. It is not civilization to spawn into the world a string of progeny which the progenitor can neither feed nor educate. Nor is it civilization to live in pusillanimous ease or economy in flats and other limited dwelling-places, where not only can the proverbial cat not be swung, but where there is no room even to exercise Nature's primitive functions. And to this latter state the age of commercialism is bringing all mercantile civilized nations.

How serious, however, the evil is becoming among the American people (of the United States, for the Spanish Americans are innocent of the practice) may best be gathered by the particulars given out by the Census Bureau, of New York.¹ It states "that the birth-rate is falling rapidly; that in 1790 the ratio was that of two children to every woman, whilst to-day there is barely one. The people of the United States are concluded to be only half as well able to rear children, at any rate without personal sacrifice, under the conditions now prevailing, as were their predecessors in 1790." The birth-rate in New York and the five New England States is shown to be no higher at present than that of France—the lowest European ratio. The official statistician of the Census Bureau ascribes the falling birth-rate to the migration of the people to the cities and the tendency to live in flats and restricted dwellings. The decline is especially serious

¹ 1909.

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in that it is among the native-born Americans; the increase of population being due mainly to immigration, a source which is by no means limitless, and which may be expected shortly to turn its current to Canada, South America, Africa and Australia, early in this century. At the present time official figures show that more than half the population of the United States consists of either foreign-born persons or of Americans of the first generation; that is, children of immigrants.

At this rate the Colossus might develop feet of clay! Must history repeat itself and bring, as the end of luxury and wealth some inevitable horde of barbarians from the desert, to begin civilization anew upon the ruins of the old? Well may the nations of the earth—Asia, Europe, America—be reminded from pulpit and psalm that unless the eternal principles of simplicity and constancy underlie their civilizations and their cities—"They labour in vain that would build them". Is there a menace to American civilization in these conditions? Probably the near future will show. They may be only passing maladies, and we may not take it upon ourselves here to cry "Ichabod" upon this great land, on this score. Moreover, statistics in Britain have ascribed as the lowest on record the birth-rate for the United Kingdom, that of the first months of 1910.

In observing the American people, from New York to San Francisco, we shall find ourselves naturally endeavouring to resolve them into groups or types. This is always a difficult and elusive

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thing to do, and involves much contradiction. Yet some types will start from our retrospect, after years of observation of them. First there is the business element, which of itself is divisible into various kinds of men. We find a very large body of men who leave the impression upon us of eager hurrying dapper beings of medium stature ; crowding trains, elevators, offices, and busy streets ; all more or less alike, all dressed alike, living largely in flats ; all speaking with the same accent, the same words ; generally courteous, law-abiding citizens ; but somehow reminding us of dapper eels in a pond, all with their noses touching the surface and wriggling complacently ; all of the same form and somewhat colourless hue. Another type is that with the grim jaw and ready oath—or perhaps he suppresses the oath in better company ; dogged, pursuing his schemes through thick and thin, fearing neither man nor heaven ; occupying higher places than the dapper eel, because more rugged and vertebrate. Then there comes before us the stout-bellied American. We meet him puffing unending cigars, in trains, sitting in hotel offices, good-natured, bloated, of unelevated ideals and common speech. Then we have the great army of “big oaths and overalls” ; the huge class of the American mechanic, oily, tobacco-chewing, eternally spitting, profane, strenuous ; scarcely more than a machine himself ; of a certain standard of material intellectually, however, above his European brothers. Then we come to the pioneer type of American—he who has retained something of the frontiersman

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and of rugged virtue and picturesque speech—a disappearing character now, becoming merged in the mere train-robber or “get rich quick” class. Yet we look almost in vain for the American of our schoolboy days; the Yankee of adventurous tales; picturesque and breezy.

“No one greets me as ‘festive cuss’
No one says to me ‘wal ole hoss!’
No grim six-shooter threatens me with danger
If I don’t quickly ‘pass the butter, boss’.”

Lastly we come to the society man, and we have left him until last because he is rather a *rara avis*. The Americans do not form a leisure class among their men. To the upper class American, sport, travel, and outdoor pursuits do not seem to appeal for what they are themselves to the same extent as with his progenitor of the British upper class. Probably it is because he is removed from their original atmosphere and traditions, which were first of all mediaeval, and is following out the phase of his particular development, which is not of that character. A recent English writer on American society took issue with the “tame-cat” attitude of American men in their homes. She said “she did like, when a man came in the room, to know it”. The fact that strikes the foreigner is that the American lacks individuality. He is not the type of man—at any rate when he is young—who would be selected, for example, as the hero of a romance. This may seem an unkind statement, but the American has preferred to sacrifice himself on the altar of money-making, which makes men all

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alike. Probably he does not want to be a hero of romance. There are plenty of Englishmen (and perhaps the type is growing) who come in the same colourless category. But we shall never get rid of the impression in our travels, from New York to San Francisco, that Americans seemed to have been cast in the same mould, and strong and splendid as they are as a nation, there are very few who stand out from the mass. They have sunk their individuality, and they will never regain it until the present money-getting age is past. At present these excellent eels are happy in their pond, nor wish to emerge from it to the troubled waters of a more intellectual life. If you take one of them out—buttonhole him and sound him—you will at length find yourself repeating with the immortal Hiawatha of their own poet—

“ You are not the fish I wanted,
You are not the King of fishes ! ”

Nor do we find the rugged and simple folk in America such as the European peasantry produces. It is impossible that we could. The very character of American life has eliminated them ; it begins to mould them from the instant they step ashore as immigrants on the American dock. We shall inevitably become cognizant of the fact in America—and the same thing is at work in Canada—that man is passing through a process of transformation. Whether it is to be a noble one or an ignoble one it is impossible to judge yet. At times we shall be optimistic, at times pessimistic ; but believing

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as we do that the plan of evolution is towards nobility, we reserve our right to hope; and looking back upon the general type of American we shall retain a strong impression of the strenuous purpose of a fine and dominant race full of promise.

To come now, to certain concrete considerations. The reign of the plutocrat in American cities is in this first decade of the twentieth century near its zenith—or we imagine so, and the parade of riches is one of the most marked features of American society. As observers of America from the point of view of the evolutionist this is not a matter for much surprise. A nation in its comparative youth, lusty and exulting in its strength, is ostentating its wealth, as all nations, from Babylon to Britain, have done in greater or less degree. Yet we shall not be without a pang of regret that a New World and the children of Pilgrim Fathers and Puritans, should so inevitably disclose the trail of the serpent. All we can say is that it is too early yet for the brotherhood of man; and we must reluctantly suppose that the United States is not to be that republic where “philosophers are kings, and where kings are imbued with philosophy”; or not yet.

The “freak” entertainments of New York and other cities of the Republic, have of recent years furnished interesting matter for newspapers, and subject for reflection and amusement for their observers. Nor is it in New York alone, nor such centres of newly acquired wealth as Chicago that these singularly ostentatious and simian diversions take place, for Philadelphia was infected, as shown

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by its much quoted "butterfly ball". Philadelphia—the city of Brotherly Love—it is to be recollected, is a city always famed for its conservatism, since the time it was founded by Penn in 1682; and the old scorn of display cherished by its Quaker settlers has permeated the character of its people and has been stamped upon its architecture. But an ambitious millionaire bank magnate and his wife decided that the debut of their daughter warranted the stirring-up of this Puritan atmosphere; and they gave a ball which certainly embodied some unique features. It is recorded by the Press that, "at the moment when some two hundred and fifty couples were whirling about the great hall in the embrace of each other to the accompaniment of dreamy waltz music, thousands of gorgeous butterflies were let loose from the corners of the hall, suddenly; and the beautiful insects floated about among the guests and the softened lights and banks of flowers. These butterflies had been specially imported from South America and Mexico for the occasion, it is stated; the floral decorations alone had cost £7,000, whilst the cost of the whole entertainment was given as £25,000. The momentary tropical beauty of the scene was a surprise, such as had never been experienced. The dancing stopped, men and women clapped their hands with ecstasy, and an air of enchantment enveloped the scene. Six thousand gorgeous pink roses decorated the chandeliers and corners of the room, and electric fountains added diversity thereto. But . . . the wings of the butterflies soon beat themselves to pieces against the surrounding magnificence, or

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they gathered dying in clusters upon the roses, ferns, and azaleas, or hung despairing on the ceiling. Soon they shrivelled up or were crushed, falling on to the heads of the dancers or into the guests' glasses of champagne and dishes of costly food."¹

The ball was considered a great success ; but in the ambitious American spirit it could not be allowed to pass unchallenged ; and another fond millionaire-father, of the same Quaker city, decided that "creation must be whipped" again. Two weeks after the butterfly ball he hired the most sumptuous hotel the city afforded in order to make the debut of his daughter the unforgettable affair of Philadelphia. But let us permit the enterprising pressman² to tell the tale of this "goldfish ball," as it was termed : "Not only butterflies, but free song-birds fluttering about in foliage, and goldfish in a fountain, all ready to be hooked by fair women, marked the young lady's debut at Philadelphia's most palatial hotel. The cost of the affair was far above anything that has gone before, even exceeding the famous butterfly ball already described, by about £10,000. The scene of the debutante's formal introduction to society was a woodland glade, with rustic bridges over real pools, and imitation ones made with mirrors, surrounded by plants and flowers, fountains were flowing, canaries warbling in the foliage, butterflies fluttering, bees humming, and all kinds of rare fish swam in the ponds and streams. The twelve hundred guests

¹ Correspondence of the "London Daily Telegraph," December, 1907.

² *Ante.*

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were unanimous in the opinion that all was exquisite. Departing from precedent, the birds were carefully handled, and none was hurt. Even the goldfish that were hooked were thrown back into the water—a trifle out of breath perhaps, but still alive. Altogether it was an artistic affair, barring the poor goldfish, which was a mistake. As a *succès de saison* it surpassed immeasurably the mounted wedding breakfast at Newport, and the dinner given “in honour of Consul, the intelligent baboon”.

In justice to the city of “Brotherly Love,” generally, it must be recorded that the butterfly and fish torture was greatly decried, and the cruelty denounced “by those who were not guests on the occasion”. The matter of the Newport dinner referred to a famous feast which was given by some ennuied society leaders of that resort, at which an educated baboon was the principal guest; whilst the “mounted wedding breakfast” was still another “freak” endeavour to surpass all other entertainments, and to amuse the plutocrat society of the New World.

Of somewhat similar character was the “dogs’ Christmas banquet” at Pittsburg, a lurid account of which appeared in the London Press,¹ and in whose relation I will not interfere. It runs as follows:

“One of those extravagant ‘Christmas treats’ in honour of households pets, which clergymen in New York and Cincinnati are fervidly denouncing, has resulted at Pittsburg in a sanguinary conflict between 200 dogs and their owners. Scores of dog

¹ “The Daily Mail,” December, 1908.

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fanciers are to-day awaiting, with bitten legs and horrible dreams of hydrophobia, the verdict of the law upon their escapade. The party was for the benefit of 'Our Teddy' an English prize bulldog, who was seated on a plush throne before a Christmas tree in an hotel, where he received 200 other dogs of high and low degree, some of which had arrived in motor cars and others afoot. The tree was resplendent with coloured balls, tinsel, and electric lights, and was laden with presents in the shape of brass-studded collars, leashes, combs, brushes and dog biscuits. Scarcely had the show opened amid a babel of yelps and barks than an ill-mannered guest, half bulldog and half Irish terrier, launched himself with a yell of rage at a dachshund, which was sitting, with a bored expression, on a table. The dachshund was a dummy stuffed with straw, but served the purpose. 'Our Teddy' sprang from his throne, and in an instant the canine guests were engaged in a furious fight. Their owners joined in the mêlée, endeavoured to separate the combatants, and then fell to fighting themselves. The fray assumed such proportions that in a few moments dogs and men were fighting over the entire first floor of the hotel. When the police reserves arrived a score of poodles and Skye terriers were stretched lifeless on the battlefield. 'Our Teddy' fixed his teeth in the calf of a sturdy policeman, whose stick caught the champion a stunning blow. Other bulldogs were soon clinging to other policemen. The regular visitors to the hotel fled into the street, where, according to the New York Press, a riotous

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crowd of several thousands gathered to watch the destruction of the hotel furniture. 'Our Teddy' lies to-day in bed swathed in bandages. After the fray more than twenty dog-owners and policemen visited the Pasteur Institute in fear of rabies."

The newspaper writer of the above has certainly let no point or picturesque detail escape him ; and how far imagination has been drawn upon it were hard to say. But these singular entertainments and exhibitions of wealth and ingenuity followed each other in rapid succession at certain seasons in America, especially in New York. Entertainments of all kinds are made the peg to hang ostentation of wealth and dress upon ; even the horse show becomes, at times, a display of feminine dress rather than of equine beauty. I attended this show on one occasion, but it had not reached the splendour which a following season produced,¹ and which perhaps is worthy of recording—again in the newspaper man's eloquent language :—

"The great social event of the year, the National Horse Show at the Madison Square Gardens, resolved itself to-day into a contest for public admiration between the ladies of the smartest set and the horses owned by their husbands. The spectacle, indeed, was a curious one. Imagine a vast ring, in which valuable thoroughbreds are exhibiting their paces, surrounded by a glittering circle of women in low-necked dresses ablaze with diamonds and clad in the latest freaks of fashion. 'Which section of the show represents the greater expenditure of

¹ November, 1908.

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money?’ was asked of an American friend, who was proudly discoursing on the extraordinary number of dollars necessary to produce the magnificent spectacle confronting us. He made a rapid calculation. ‘Well,’ he said, ‘you see 500 women, wearing at least £500,000 worth of jewels. You also see 500 horses worth on an average £300 each, or a total of £150,000. Their harness costs another £150,000, and their keep amounts to £200,000 yearly. I think you may safely say the American plutocrat spends more on the fair sex than on horses.’ As on previous nights, the crowds of middle-class spectators could catch only occasional glimpses of the horses, and their attention was absorbed by the dresses and hats of the wealthy women present. The hats worn by the ladies were of enormous size. One wondered, as one gazed at illimitable expanses of brims and gorgeous forests of feathers, how the wearers succeeded in alighting from their carriages and passing through the doors.”

A later season,¹ however, has seen much less of the element of ostentation and more of horseflesh, and a marked feature was the splendid way British horsemen-competitors were received.

It is scarcely to be supposed that American men find pleasure, generally, in these social antics and ostentations. They are done, probably, to “go one better” than their neighbours, and doubtless principally at the instigation of the womenfolk. For the American man is serious, and a worker, and when he devours the “apple” it is generally because it is held

¹ November, 1909.

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out to him by Eve. Woman, in the United States, seems to be in the midst of a reaction in the history of her sex. Woman has been veiled and shut up in harems and zenanas for nearly the whole of known time, but now, in America, the reaction has come, and the pendulum has swung almost to the other extreme; and she occupies first place in the American home. This is not the outcome of chivalry, but is a distinct growth of Americanism encountered in no other country. Does she like it? Is it likely to last? To the foreigner, the American husband and the young man suitor seem too subservient—may we be pardoned so bold an assertion. But the fact is evident that the American woman—like all other women—likes colour and authority in men. Often, when the choice comes, she welcomes the attentions of the foreigner, as shown by the numerous marriages of American heiresses with foreigners. The foreigner, whether gentleman or adventurer (or gentlemanly rascal, and there have been many) has generally more attractiveness for women in his composition, and beside him the equally worthy American sometimes seems colourless. On the other hand, marriages between American men and foreign ladies are much less frequent, and the fact is significant. We rarely hear of marriages between American men and Englishwomen; they probably do not understand each other. But European admiration for the American woman has been a marked feature in transatlantic relations. Perhaps she has been somewhat overdrawn, but she should always command homage.

CHAPTER IX

THE AMERICAN PEOPLE

American rudeness—Freedom from starchiness—Business relations—Foreigners—Chinamen, Japanese, Germans, Englishmen, Irish—Emigration—British apathy towards her poor—The negroes—The problem of the negroes—Lynch law—The Indians—Evolution of the native races—Singular traits of superstition—Clairvoyants—Pleasing American trait

ALTHOUGH we do not find in the American character the individuality which the English, Scotch, or British generally, evince, we shall soon observe that they possess another trait which to a certain extent takes its place. They are, individually, an extremely aggressive people. Each is pushing his way, generally regardless of others, and, in a much greater degree than is the case with the British, careless of others. As a nation the Americans are serious, non-aggressive, considerate, and averse to international bullying, but as individuals they are extremely prone to take offence, and are up in arms in a moment. They have not the long-suffering native gentility of the European—prince or peasant—which is slow to think a slight intended. Moreover, they bristle with aggressive rudeness, especially when vested with a little brief authority; and this takes the form of petty tyranny often, and is

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very marked among all kinds of small officials. The post-office clerk who sells you stamps or issues a money order, snaps you up upon any request for information ; whilst the gentleman or lady (the lady less so) who condescends to take your telegram over the post-office counter, snatches it rudely from you, so doubtless, to impress you with his or her equality with yourself. The same spirit animates the boorish waiter at the restaurant—in the best hotels, however, only foreigners are employed in such capacities—who bangs your plate down before you and purposely brushes against you. The policeman is a bully in livery, encounter him where you will, whilst the rudeness exercised by anything in uniform permeates the whole country. It is the kind of behaviour we might expect in Britain under a Socialist regime !

Yet in some respects there is a much greater amount of personal freedom in American life, especially in the business world. The etiquette of the office is less rigid. Men, both principals and employees, enjoy more intercourse, and the distinction between the chief and his clerk is far less sharply drawn than in England, Germany, or France. The petty, servile relations which are so time-honoured an institution between employer and employed in Britain do not exist ; and the banishment of this element is one of the things for which the United States and Anglo-Americans generally may take great and justifiable pride. The only difference between employer and employed in America is the momentary one of their

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relative positions and bank account—positions which might be reversed to-morrow, in the swift changes of fortune of the American business world. In Britain there is generally some difference in education and social standing between the merchant or manufacturer and his clerk ; in the United States there is no such difference ; they are both of the same world ; and moreover the latter is always striving to overtake the former. I have always recollected, in this connexion, an advertisement which I observed in the daily papers during one of my visits to New York. It was the advertisement of a correspondence business college ; and depicted an employer sitting in front of his “roll-top” desk, whilst a clerk waited the great man’s orders from the back. Below was the legend, “Which side of the desk are you on?”

Of course, the somewhat free-and-easy business intercourse in American offices tends to disappear as time goes on and to be replaced by European starchiness—a matter for regret. It is to some extent a legacy of the corner store of the unfledged country town, where men dropped in to discuss current matters, and, sitting upon empty soap-boxes, “calculated their distance” in unembarrassed expectoration around the stove! The atmosphere (and custom often) remains strong, even if the empty soap-box has been replaced by the luxurious offices or Board-room chair. It is far less frequent now for men to discharge a jet of tobacco-juice upon the floor in close proximity to your feet, in the United States, for the constant cigar-smoking

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has largely taken the place of tobacco-chewing, although in our journeyings we shall still enter hotel parlours or offices where we must pick our way through the pools of spittle; whilst the "cuspidor," as the spittoon is politely termed, is in evidence even in the drawing-rooms of private houses.

It must be long, however, before the freer intercourse between men in North America is replaced by the starchiness of Europe; probably it never will be. The American citizen reserves his right to enter and gossip in an office, and if in self-defence the owner finds his valuable time being wasted he can always put up the customary notice—"This is my busy day," or, "I have troubles of my own". To the English traveller in America the lack of starchiness comes like a refreshing draught.

As we traverse the streets of American towns, whether (or perhaps specially) of New York or of San Francisco, we shall note the prevalence of Jewish names above the shops and great wholesale stores where clothing in any form is dealt with. These are, moreover, very often the names of German Jews. Indeed we shall be met at every turn by evidences of the cosmopolitan character of the American people. The Chinaman takes our washing, and talks in his bland tones; but he never assimilates with the great mass around him, and the singular English he talks and the American slang he—unconsciously—uses, are but a veneer covering his thousands of years of semi-barbarous civilization. Here is the banana or ice-cream man, always an Italian, never learning, except in the second genera-



STREET SCENE, ST. LOUIS, MISSOURI

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tion of his children, the brusque address of the American. His accent betrays him on the instant, but it has disappeared in his children. Here is the ubiquitous Scandinavian—Dane or Swede or Norwegian, you can tell him in a moment by his speech, the—to him—unpronounceable “j” and “g” of the English language. “I think I yump the yob,” one of my Scandinavian men said to me one day, upon some railway work in the North. Custom had rendered his dialect not unfamiliar to me. He wished to “jump the job”; a slang term for abandoning his work. “Why?” I asked him. He replied that he did not like the “yentleman” (gentleman) who was at the head of his gang. This was a burly Irishman, who had none of the courtesy which even the Scandinavian working-man employs, and the son of the Vikings was disgusted at some rough speech or treatment. Here is the “Jap,” small, brown and intelligent, ever with something apish about him, but quick and ever learning. I was staying on a ranch in California once, when a Japanese gang came up to the owner for their contracted pay for wood cutting. “All right,” said the ranchman, “let’s go and see it,” and at his invitation I accompanied him. The wood was neatly packed up in a pile, known to the American as “cordwood,” and seemed all right. The Californian, however—possibly from experience—was of an investigative turn of mind, and he knocked over a portion of the pile, and disclosed the fact that the wood had been piled upon a large tree stump to increase its bulk! “No pay,” was his sole comment. The leader of

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the Japs and his companions protested volubly in their own tongue, they spoke no English yet; but the ranchman was obdurate. At length the Jap leader, facing us, enunciated one word in English, a single word, but its tone was such as a whole vocabulary would not have expressed in ordinary circumstances; "Goddam!" he exclaimed. It was the only word of English he knew; and such was its effect that we all roared with laughter. I do not mean by this to imply that the Japanese are always tricky: far from it, for they are, as a rule, good and efficient workers. Like the Chinaman, the Japanese is an entity apart, and never merges into the great bulk around him.

The German is plentiful. Some cities, such as Milwaukee and others, seem to be formed of them, and they often retain their own language through many generations, and whilst glorying in their American citizenship, the Fatherland remains a distant and revered ideal for them. They are among the best of America's citizens—solid, honest, industrious; and their general characteristics as settlers differ little indeed from those of the British. As to Englishmen they are encountered at every turn, yet not nearly so plentifully as Germans, Italians, and others.

The Irish are encountered everywhere; and the traveller finds himself asking how that small Emerald Isle in the North Atlantic could have produced so many of them. Then he will recollect that Ireland has been drained for generations of the flower of her manhood, for America. The volume

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of emigration from Ireland is again increasing ; it was calculated in 1909 at 30,000 per annum. Among the population of New York alone there are stated to be 350,000 Irish. The census of 1890 gave something under 2,000,000 of Irish people in the United States, 5,000,000 of people of Irish parentage, with about 20,000,000 of people of Irish descent. A recent estimate, taking the growth of the population into consideration, has been made, endeavouring to show that nearly half the population of the country has Irish blood in it at the present time. When we recollect that the Irish in America are frequently antagonistic to England we shall not be surprised at the occasional outbreaks of Anglophobia which occur in the American Press. These figures, in some of their aspects, are rather a terrible indictment of England's attitude towards Ireland in the past, say what we will. And not yet even, has an Imperial Government in Great Britain come to being which takes any official interest in the drain of Irish (or English) blood to foreign shores, or its diverting to her colonies. There is punishment yet in store for Britain in this, if she does not wake up and put aside this criminal apathy. Where are the real custodians of Empire? In Britain millions live in semi-starvation, being, nevertheless, citizens of the greatest Empire, upon which the sun never sets. Wake up, England !

The negro we shall find everywhere. In New York there are 25,000 negro voters, and strenuous efforts were made by both sides—Tammany¹ and

¹ A full account of Tammany is given in a later chapter.

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Reform—to capture this solid vote. But whilst the negroes, in matters of national election generally, are staunch for the Republican party, they do not necessarily follow any particular lead in municipal contests. Sometimes they vote for Tammany, but at other times against the “Wigwam”. At other times they complain that after “the tiger” has taken care of the Irish, the Jews, and the Italians, “there ain’t no jobs for de cullered man”. But as has been shown in the chapter dealing with the geography of the United States, the negro is much less in evidence in the West—west of Chicago—or rather the North-west. The South is his home; the warm lowlands and the semi-tropical regions of the Gulf Coast. In California he is stretched out to a mere fringe. Yet the negro is very much in evidence in the United States. What is to be his future? To what is the imperishable antipathy to him on the part of the white Americans due? He is not, and never will be, admitted as an equal. A thousand years, at the present rate—nay, four thousand years, it hardly seems rash to say, will scarcely alter his status. For the negro suffers both physically and intellectually from inferiority. The assertion is made in no unkind spirit, but as a physiological fact. First, the singular odour always encountered in the immediate vicinity of the black people seems a natural bar to equality or social intercourse with the whites. As to his general treatment in the United States, it occurs to the foreigner, who has observed the negroes of Jamaica and other places

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under British rule, that negroes may live happily under an Empire but not under a Republic. That is to say, the Imperial governing race of Britain is much more tolerant of the negro than is the American, with his (theoretically) all-men-equal regime. In the British Possessions the status of the negro is better defined, and the mixture of authority and kindly fellowship with which he is treated is a far better governing spirit than the repression exercised socially against him in the United States. How savage the race-antagonism so conspicuously displayed towards negroes in America may become at times, the traveller who has witnessed the circumstances following upon negro outrages, the reprisals and terrible punishments meted out to them, may bear witness. The burning alive of negroes for outrages against white women, and for other crimes such as frequently occur in parts of the United States, are matters which show both the terrible race hatred against the negro and the latent spirit of barbarity in certain parts of the Republic, among the whites. In a subsequent chapter this terrible aspect of lynch law is further discussed. The problem of the negro is one of the most difficult in America. His presence there is the result of a sin against nature, when he was torn from his native continent to satisfy purely selfish greed of gain ; and the Americans must evolve the answer, metaphorically speaking, in sackcloth and ashes.

The Indians of America have often been subjected to much error as regards their description.

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In the first place there is no *red* race ; they are all *brown* peoples, whether in North or South America ; and only of varying shades of brown, so that to suppose a division of the human race as a *red* race is incorrect. Possibly the term “redskin ” applied by pioneers to the North American indigenes came about from the Indian custom of painting the exposed parts of the body with red ochre. Nor were the Indians always nomadic savages, simply living as armed bands, or subsisting by the chase alone. A majority of the Indians, especially on the Eastern side of North America, were agriculturalists who raised crops about their villages ; and, in the arid regions, irrigated the land. It was the introduction of the horse and the rifle by the white man which largely helped to change their habits, and to make them nomadic. Had the Indians of North America been undisturbed in their environment no doubt they would have passed into the next stage ; that of a patriarchal people. The Aztecs of Mexico, and Incas of South America, who had developed or inherited their own relatively advanced civilization, are in a different category. There has been ever a well-known saying among frontiersmen that “there is no good Indian but a dead Indian,” and whilst there is ample excuse for the theory,—for the Indians, especially such tribes as the Apaches, were possessed of a spirit of exceeding barbarity and treachery, in which human ingenuity was mixed with a feline love of inflicting pain—nevertheless, it must be taken into account that the Indian was in course of evolution, and was arrested in an unfortunate stage.

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Turning to the native-born white Americans, it is observed that, in the great conglomerate mass of the people singular crazes and manias constantly arise, whether in business, religion, or social life. The influence of a vast lower-class body of immigrating peoples, often of superstitious beliefs and methods, has its effect, in a measure, on the whole people of the United States. Hence we see "crank" religions and crazes constantly breaking out. The advent of "Messiahs," "redeemers" and others is of frequent occurrence, and these impostors often obtain a rush of followers and reap "spiritual" control and considerable filthy lucre. Strange sects of people come to being and shortly fade away. Prophets occasionally arise, and by their prophecies of catastrophe work upon panic-stricken followers in a way such as would be impossible in England. The "End of the World" is a favourite theme among them, and recently bands of lower-class people, both white and negro, in the New England States and in the South, were wrought to frenzy by a prophecy of some crazy "Baptist" that the judgment-day was at hand. This characteristic shows itself, moreover, in the exceedingly numerous persons who set up, and doubtless earn a good living, as spiritualists, mediums, astrologers, etc. We find them in all American cities, from New York to San Francisco. Where shall we find, in any other leading newspaper of the world, the front page given over to long, wordy advertisements of clairvoyants, such as appears at times upon the cover of one of New York's premier

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journals?¹ Some extracts from the advertisements in this paper are amusing:—

Judge me by my work. I am successful myself. My extensive patronage and great success are the envy of all competitors. Appreciating the delicate nature of my profession, I have had my parlours so arranged that you meet no strangers, and they are suited to the most exclusive patronage. Don't mistake the name and number. The All-wise Creator did not endow you with high ideas, noble inspirations, desire for happiness and return for that great love craving within your heart without at the same time placing within your reach the means of attaining these desires. If you are in trouble of any kind or not satisfied with your condition in life, come to me and I will make this clear to you. Positively no charge if I fail to tell you your name in full. My fees reduced in accordance with the times—one dollar. Your greatest wish can be realized—you would not desire a thing if you were not capable of attaining it. I know how to control and use that power . . . etc., etc.

In an adjacent column, with promises of magic equally powerful, is a "professor," and his charges are only fifty cents. This gentleman's long advertisement is headed with the legend "Know your future!" followed by a letter from the "International Psychic Association of America and Europe," recommending the professor to the public as a reliable medium, signed with the names of the Association's President, Secretary and Treasurer! It goes on to say that the professor tells you every one of your hopes, fears or ambitions, better than you can tell them yourself, reads your life like an open book, and—and here, of course, is the point—indicates "the way to success". After that a palmist occupies the field of the newspaper's front page; and

¹ The "Herald," September, 1909.

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then more mundane matters follow, of other professional people who reduce fat, make hair grow, etc., with an occasional "Metaphysical School" in between. These advertisements, it is to be recollected, are on the front page of what is the American equivalent to "The Times," of London.

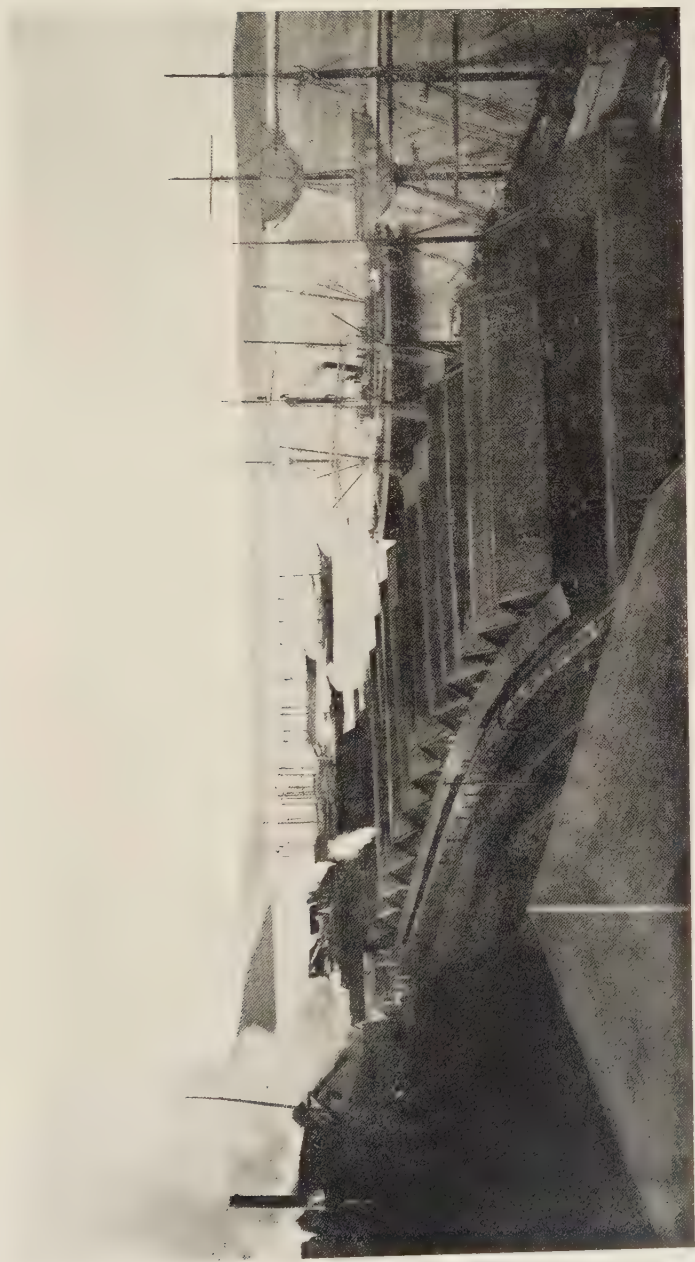
But we shall not unsparingly hold up to ridicule these singular matters. There is a world of pathos in them. Poor defective men and women: they are seeking some occult or royal road to wealth or comfort, to mental or physical health, eager to hear the words even of a charlatan-comforter and strengthen their own thoughts and desires by association with those of some other human being; even if he be only a quack who does it for a petty hire. America is full of these people; a vast superstitious army pressing onwards in the struggle for life. Yet it is not only the poor, by any means, who consult the clairvoyants. Wealthy men of business, whether in New York or in San Francisco, constantly ask advice from these sources. Whilst in Britain this kind of thing is rare we shall wisely refrain from being too condemnatory, especially in view of the recent matters of "spirit bureaux" and ghostly interviews carried on by an eminent British journalist in London, which have shocked or deluded the people according to their several susceptibilities.¹

Thus have we glanced at some of the pronounced types and traits which we encounter in our journeyings among the people of this great republic. We

¹ The Editor of the "Review of Reviews".

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shall not be obsessed by those which are freak, bizarre, or criminal, to the exclusion of the great mass of normal citizens who are the foundation of America's greatness. The Americans, whilst they show a lamentable failing individually, at times, towards lawlessness, must nevertheless be set down as a law-abiding people. They are not easily fanned into a revolutionary flame, and anarchists and extremists receive generally scant sympathy. Also, they are a charitable and earnest people. The number and variety of religious, missionary, benevolent, literary, hygienic, scientific, educational and other institutions or associations existing throughout the Republic show how strong is their spirit for active betterment in all walks of life. There is one trait, moreover, of the Americans which is especially pleasing to the Englishman, and is, indeed, an English trait—the Americans are a people you never make an appeal to in vain. Contrasting their methods with the cheeseparating methods of Europe or Asia, we shall understand that Nature is indeed adapting man to a broad new environment in this New World. It is a pleasing side of the picture, contrasted with that which we now have to consider.



THE PACIFIC COAST : PART OF THE HARBOUR OF TACOMA

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CHAPTER X

TARIFFS, TYRANNY, OFFICIALDOM

American tendency to tyranny—The tariff troglodytes—Uniformed cave-dwellers—Savage tribal instinct in commerce—Offensive custom-house methods—American lack of courtesy—Custom-ridden travellers—Immigration restrictions—Growing prohibition of immigration—Medical humbug—Colonial restrictions against Britain

A MARKED characteristic of American life, as we have observed elsewhere, is the tendency to tyranny, whether among the lower officials of administrative departments of Government or Municipal bodies, or whether among the officers or employees of railway and other companies. The American himself, who has never left his own shores, probably does not observe this trait; he has no means of comparison, but the travelled American comments upon it freely, whilst, as to the foreign traveller it probably has often acted as a deterrent to a second visit to the United States; at any rate for persons who go there for pleasure. Vested with a little "brief authority" the usual good-fellowship which is characteristic of the ordinary American in his usual occupations disappears, and is replaced by an aggressive incivility; "shirt-sleeve diplomacy," and an unnecessary flaunting of authority, which is a

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singular outcome of democracy, but which it might have been supposed would not have flourished on the soil of a "free" country. The traveller's first introduction to this spirit is near the Statue of Liberty, at the entrance to New York harbour, or possibly soon after sighting Sandy Hook. A steamer has come alongside our liner, and the inquisitors of the custom-house are here to perform their duty; as also the inspectors and doctors of the Sanitary and Immigration Departments. Now does the traveller who has heard, vaguely perhaps, of "Tariff walls" and custom regulations, learn how the predatory instincts of the prehistoric cave-dweller—the offensive and defensive measures against his neighbour along the cliff—have evolved into the national policy of a great modern nation. The lesson in evolution is alone worth the disagreeable experience which we shall encounter. Just as we can imagine the tousled head of the troglodyte peering, with ready club, from around some crag at the entrance of his grotto as some other tribesman approaches, so does the uniformed American custom-house or immigration official glare from the shelter of the Statue of Liberty at the approaching foreigner, and flourishes his official "club".

Now, no one of ordinary common sense would deny the right, or even the advisability for a nation to impose duties and revenues upon foreign goods coming to its shores. Even the cave-dweller was obliged to protect his larder against the open or insidious annexation of his neighbour. In theory Free Trade is most philosophical; in practice there

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is no such thing—yet : nor could there be, unless it were universal. The world is a world of compromise, and we must meet it. Nations are as yet only exaggerated individuals, whose predatory policy is dictated either by self-defence, or by a native cut-throat instinct of ambition ; and respect and safety are only earned—at present—by the “strong man armed,” or by the free exercise of the tribal instinct. Those countries which, either from mistaken policy or from motives of philanthropy (if such exist anywhere), allow the foreigner to “dump” his manufacture upon his shores, will inevitably suffer the fate of all pusillanimous organizations.

The tribal instinct in the United States, however, from the foreigner’s—nay, from the philosopher’s—point of view, has been carried to excess. Moreover the high tariffs have not always the excuse that they are raised to benefit the community, although this in the main is true, but in some cases they are the result of the evil political manipulation of manufacturing trusts, which, to add to their own gains, work towards excluding what might be of benefit to the masses.

And here let us say in parenthesis—and some American thinkers are beginning to realize it—that these restrictions and impositions, from which the United States suffers, have a more serious effect than the mere present one. They react on the community in the stifling or detaining of the growth of that higher civilization, whose possession marks out Europe from the United States. Under the iron grip and intolerance of commercialism, art,

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literature, philosophy and what beauty there is in this mundane existence are stunted, and the time of their fruition—a time which every evolving nation has a right to expect—is delayed.

But to return to our steamer. The passengers are sitting in rows in the cabin, to undergo an inquisitorial catechism as to their personal effects, their nature and value, couched often in brusque and almost offensive terms. A general sense of indignity and protest prevails among them; men swear under their breath and ladies are put to the blush at inquiries regarding their personal apparel. More; not content with these methods, a still more rigorous system of customs examination was instituted recently,¹ ladies being almost wantonly insulted by the customs police searchers in the attempts to discover contraband; by officials passing their hands over ladies' figures. These disgraceful methods brought about a strong protest. "American women are complaining of the ignominious treatment they are subjected to by the newly established marine police at the steamship docks. Nothing is sacred to these so-called customs policemen, who examine the women's gloves, shoes, and hair for hidden jewellery. One lady describes her experiences by saying she was 'prodded all over the body, one official passing his hand over my bodice like a tailor fitting a gown. Had I been accompanied by a male companion he would have knocked the official down.' Whilst another lady was passing the gate an official snatched her watch from her belt. It proved to be

¹ August, 1909.

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an American watch, which was immediately returned to her when her husband threatened to smash the offender's head. Even the toes of shoes and the fingers of gloves are probed, and custom stamps are ruthlessly plastered over gold chains, purses and other articles. The situation is felt to be intolerable." Such is the account sent from New York to the London papers;¹ and that all the vigilance was unnecessary was shown by the fact that upon a rigid examination of 2,500 cabin passengers in one day, the customs inquisition only seized a few gold bracelets secreted in the clothing of a New York merchant. "The returning citizen to the United States is raising an exceedingly great and bitter cry against the methods of the New World Custom officers, as compared with those of the old. A revised tariff has come into effect, but that is not so much blamed as is the personality of the staff of inspectors,"² says another account, and indeed it is the spirit and the method, more than the actual examination which is resented in these matters by the traveller. The brutal instincts of the tribesman are unsoftened by any diplomacy or courtesy which the lapse of time since, say, the Quaternary period of the cave-dweller might have been supposed to bring about. "The right to strip every traveller entering America to the skin if necessary to prevent smuggling," was credited as the delectable pronouncement of the chief customs collectors of New York. "No one is free from this

¹ Vide the Press, 7 September, 1909.

² "Daily Telegraph," 7 September, 1909.

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rigid inspection of the newly established staff of officials, who pass their hands over ladies' bodices and men's pockets in the hope of finding contraband. The system has been carried to such extremes as to justify the prediction that somebody will be shot soon. At the gates of the dock the police open even the small purses carried by ladies and turn the pockets of male travellers inside out. This physical search causes great delay, which is utilized by the detectives, some of whom, affecting lameness, jolt against the passengers."¹

Whilst the above accounts are necessarily tinged with journalistic sensation to some extent, nevertheless the passenger who himself has had occasion at any time during the last few years to enter the port of New York can bear witness to their substratum of fact and will recollect his own disgust. It might be asked how is it that an intelligent people like the Americans can permit, in the first place, custom regulations of so savagely exacting a character, and secondly, such equally barbarous methods and infraction of the rights of civilized beings. The reply is that the great body of shopkeepers and manufacturers do all in their power to influence the Government to legislate against the introduction of foreign goods, in order to stimulate their own business—a singular condition of legislation of one class at the expense of another, among a professedly "free" people. Secondly, as to the discourtesy and tyranny of officials this is a peculiarly American trait. Americans can always be found to

¹ "Daily Mail," 7 August, 1909.

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do such work with zest ; there is some element of latent ruffianism in a large part of the American character, due partly to the predominating strain of peasant blood, acquired from the Old World, but mainly to that singular quality which the New World has evolved, but to which it is difficult to give a name. The club of the troglodyte peeps out from the veneer of civilization in the United States, at times, startlingly : and is in marked contrast with the people of other nations ; even those of Spanish-America, Mexico and South America. The Latin-Americans, whilst their custom laws are wide-reaching, and troublesome to the traveller, rarely fail in their enforcement of that courtesy between man and man—and especially man and woman—which is characteristic of the Latin-American race. No Mexican, Brazilian or Peruvian official would ever touch the fringe of a lady's garment, or employ in the performance of his office the discourtesy of the American of the United States. Indeed, it is in such matters of the amenities and general kindness that makes life worth living that the Anglo-American civilization has much to learn from the Spanish-American.

The greatest evaders of their own customs law are the Americans themselves, especially American women, returning from Europe. These ladies often show much ingenuity in concealing contraband goods, and “wind yards and yards of lace round themselves under their dress bodices, and sew small trinkets or diamonds under bows or frills”. Men also, bringing in several suits of clothes from

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London tailors—for the American loves to bring back sartorial property from the good, yet relatively cheap, British side—endeavour to prove, against the custom regulations, that their price was less than the appraiser puts upon them, and that they have been worn, and so are not dutiable. The free citizen of the United States is not permitted to bring to his native land clothing to a value of more than \$100 without paying heavy duty upon it. An official notice is served out to every passenger as the steamer passes the harbour entrance of New York, whose main proviso is as follows: “A resident of the United States returning thereto is entitled to bring with him, free of duty, personal effects taken abroad by him as baggage, provided they have not been remodelled or improved abroad so as to increase their value, and in addition thereto, articles purchased or otherwise obtained abroad, of a total value not exceeding \$100. Such articles may be for the use of the person bringing them or for others, but not for sale. To prevent the use of the foregoing provision as a cloak for smuggling, customs officials are instructed to inquire into the *bona fides* of the journey and the actual ownership of the goods. Either the presence of an unusual amount of any class of highly dutiable merchandise, or frequent and hasty journeys, is sufficient to raise the presumption of bad faith. Such cases will be subject to most careful scrutiny and prosecution.”

It is an interesting speculation for the foreigner how long the American citizen will allow him-

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self to be custom-ridden in this way. At present it is with a sense of impending discomfort that the traveller approaches the shore of the New World; knowing that his personal effects may be tumbled out upon the wharf under the eye of some surly official; and he contrasts the methods of American officialdom with those of the Old World, or, indeed, if he has been there, of the other Americans of Latin America.

To look now at the matter of duties from the point of view of the customs-house; the officials are, of course, carrying out their orders, which presumably are the mandate of the nation, in their own—disagreeable—way. A great deal of smuggling takes place among incoming passengers, especially among American ladies returning from Europe. They have purchased or acquired beautiful matters of raiment and other things which they know well are subject to a very heavy duty, and they endeavour to conceal or misrepresent, with the object of evading the toll. Seizure and even heavy fines result from the discovery of such contraband, and if people will smuggle they must expect punishment; which to a certain extent falls on the just and the unjust, as shown. Great quantities of dutiable apparel and other things are frequently bagged by the officials, both from private travellers and from persons endeavouring to bring goods in fraudulently for trade purposes—indeed the line between the two is not always capable of demarcation—and sales of these are held at stated intervals. Upon these occasions keen competition is shown by the fashionable

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public to acquire the articles, and recently the papers described that: "a frenzied mob of society ladies crowded the custom-house auction room, shouting each other down in their anxiety to bid".

It is to this great custom-wall that the American nation largely owes its sudden access of wealth and prosperity—aided of course by the talent of its own people and the enormous range of its natural resources and fertility of its soil. Manufactures, which a few decades ago were in the stage of "infant industries," have grown into the most powerful enterprises in the world. They have mellowed into a ripe fruit. Whether the latest crop—the trusts, the outcome of tariff measures largely—are a bitter fruit or not, time must decide. Present events appear to point to an affirmative.

Among the most indignant outcries against the policy of exclusion of foreign articles of the United States Government are those made by art collectors. Wealthy persons, on their visits to Europe, have acquired valuable art treasures, masterpieces, and unique specimens of work such as America is unable to produce, and have desired to take them home, either for the adornment of their own houses, or as donations to art galleries and museums. These have been subjected to the most rigid customs measures. Recently, in some cases, their owners will not take them to American shores at all, but are obliged to leave them in Europe. Thus a certain æsthetic loss is incurred by the United States, and this virtual prohibition of objects of art contains, perhaps, more of the savage element of the

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Cave-Dweller than anything else in the matter of customs regulations. This tightening of the community-spirit (as evinced by tariffs) seems to be a species of tribal instinct; a marked characteristic of all American communities. But something nobler was to have been expected from the New World, which, after all, is nothing but an offshoot from the Old World, and in a sense a heritage thereof: and probably growing American civilization will make breaches in these hidebound tariffs.

The petty tyranny which is so objectionable a feature of the custom matters is also marked in immigration affairs. The distinctions and impositions against foreigners are often made in that arbitrary spirit which the traveller has grown to associate with the word "American," but which in reality—or theory—is "un-American": using the word in its best sense. The people, or rather the officials of the United States, might be likened to the boat's crew of a wrecked vessel, beating off other survivors who would save themselves by clutching the gunwale! For the restrictions against immigration are yearly becoming more stringent; and the weeding out and deporting of immigrants from Europe, at American ports, is a heavy daily task, occupying an army of officials. To observe the matter from the American point of view a moment, it is not unreasonable that they should object to receive individuals in their midst who are criminals, or even physically degenerate. Naturally, they wish to preserve the community from an admixture of undesirable elements; and even the Cave-Dweller

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would not wish to open his grotto to a leper. But the blue- and brass-uniformed troglodyte of the Statue of Liberty has become excessively discriminating; and without pity he deports wholesale whither they came, poor immigrants from Europe, who have made the effort of their lives, and spent their all, to arrive upon the shores of this "promised land" which Providence set between its seas—not for the enjoyment of the first-comers, but as a heritage for Europe for all time. The question of the right of exclusion of immigrants from America is, philosophically, an interesting one. In this sense it may be asked to whom does America belong; and how far can the right to exclude be exercised. Does it belong to the people who arrived there first, and who are continually arriving, or are they simply holding it in trust until the flux of humanity shall have ceased? In this connexion I have never forgotten a cartoon which appeared in a New York comic paper some years ago, during the enacting of new immigration exclusion laws by Congress: and which hit off the philosophy of the subject excellently well. I have quoted this elsewhere, but it bears repeating. Upon a wharf are depicted four prosperous-looking, pot-bellied individuals of democratic visage, their waistcoats crossed by gold watch-chains; and smug contentment oozing from every pore. These individuals are repulsing, with outstretched hands, a boat-load of starving immigrants, who, pallid and poverty-stricken, have arrived from Europe. But this does not complete the picture, for behind the portly

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forms of the plutocrats were depicted the ghostly shapes of four starving, pallid immigrants—their own ancestors! The picture carried its own moral.

The restrictions of the immigration officials are almost becoming a craze in New York. Peculiarities of passengers are sometimes magnified into diseases or insanity, and the unfortunate passenger is detained, pending examination by doctors. Various cases of this nature have occurred recently, which have aroused much indignation; and they show the peculiar and growing frame of mind of the American, which produces tyrannous officialdom. Among these cases was that of an English lady, who was detained in the “psychopathic ward” at Ellis Island—the immigration station of the port of New York—because she happened to be a smoker, and smoked cigarettes on the promenade deck of the American liner on which she travelled. The following account of the incident is reproduced from the *London Press*,¹ and even stripped of its inevitable journalistic sensationalism, shows the cloven hoof of American officialdom and growing medical charlatanism.

“Quite sane,” was the verdict of the surgeon at Ellis Island in the case of the lady whom the immigration authorities detained on Saturday because she smoked cigarettes on the promenade deck of the liner “Philadelphia”. The fact that she politely offered her cigarette case to friendly passengers convinced the shocked officials that she was insane. They promptly caused her to be locked in the psychopathic ward at Ellis Island, where she was kept

¹ “Daily Mail,” August, 1909.

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under medical observation for forty-eight hours. The lady took her incarceration philosophically, observing sarcastically that the "View from the hospital was magnificent." She was released at night, and immediately joined her friends at their hotel. The lady, interviewed at the hotel, said, "The action of the immigration officials is incomprehensible to me. When I indignantly declared I would not go to Ellis Island, the officials informed me that if I persisted in my refusal they would strap me to a board and carry me there. I was packed in a barge with a mass of immigrants and subjected to the roughest treatment by ignorant officials, whose language was indescribably coarse. On Ellis Island, after I had been without food for the greater part of the day, a nurse flung a piece of dry bread on the table. 'Don't you have plates here?' I asked. There was no reply. 'Is it bread, then, or nothing?' I inquired. 'Yes,' said the nurse. 'Then it's nothing for me,' I declared. Later a doctor came and allowed me to order meals at my own expense."

Widespread indignation was expressed at the action of the immigration authorities, but such cases are not of infrequent occurrence. Refined people from England have occasionally been forced to sojourn among the immigrating scum, in the wretched quarters at Ellis Island; and recently a wealthy refined London family, on its way to Colorado, was detained because one of its members was consumptive: and was herded with the low-class immigrants.¹

Naturally, these questions of immigration must

¹ "Pall Mall Gazette," April, 1910.

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resolve themselves, in time, but it must remain a matter of surprise to the Britisher, whose own country has always been the home of the oppressed (sometimes, be it said, to the detriment of his own people) that this spirit of exclusion should have grown to such tyrannical proportions. In a less degree, moreover, the spirit has been evinced in Canada and Australia. As a matter of fact the age of commercialism is driving the nations into the position of the shipwrecked boat's crew aforesaid, whose craft is full to the gunwale, with an emptying locker! The Englishman, therefore, must not too bitterly complain of the United States methods when these are beginning to be adopted by his own colonies against himself. England may yet have to experience, in some respects, some of the pangs of the famous King Lear! Only the other day an English family was detained in Quebec at heavy cost to themselves because some official thought he had discovered ringworm in one of the children.¹ The Canadians (and Australians) are already showing some selfish lines of cleavage, notwithstanding that the restriction of British immigrants must be considered unconstitutional. I have raised this question in the Press and it was brought forward in the House of Commons.²

Apart from these matters, in the United States the reception of immigrants has been reduced to a science, and Ellis Island, the New York immigration depot, is among the finest organizations of its kind in the world.

¹ "The Times," 16 April, 1910.

² "Standard of Empire," April, 1910.

CHAPTER XI

TRUSTS AND "KINGS"

The great stock-gamblers—Colossal chicanery—A Railway King and his end—Immoral operations of Trusts—Proposed legislation—Comparison with British methods—London "share-peddling"—Insurance frauds—Great financial panic—American financial buccaneering—The Ice King and his end—The Copper King—The Oil King—The Beef Trust—The meat boycott—The cotton magnates—The Sugar Trust—Trusts and frauds—The denunciation of the Prophet Amos—A warning to the "Kings"

THE extent to which the financial world of the United States is influenced by the doings of the "Trusts," industrial "Kings," and great stock-gamblers, is a phenomenon such as has never been beheld before in the history of mankind. A single individual, at times, acquires and exercises such power through shrewd or lucky operation in the stock and share "markets," as may elevate or depress a whole nation for the time being. A philosophical glance at this condition and its machinery is of much interest, as one of the principal pictures of American life.

A continent lies spread before us, from New York to San Francisco; upon its broad surface teeming millions of workers are sowing and reaping grain, digging and smelting iron and copper, gather-

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ing and weaving cotton. This huge industrial mass is bound and strung together by limitless railway lines, and nerves of telegraph and telephone wires, whose extremities terminate in sky-scraping office buildings, in tape-machines and tympanums, to which the eager ear of the human super-ant is anxiously pressed. The super-ant listens, he speaks, a thousand clerks touch feverish typewriters, or send back other messages along the steel nerves, and the operation soon shows its effects. A species of effervescence arises in all the money markets and myriad brokers' offices throughout the land—rises, breaks into bubbles and foam, men are ruined or fortunes change hands in the brief moments of the effervescence; and then time, with the besom of the Almighty passes thereby, and tomorrow sweeps up the human puppets and the super-ant together. But the froth is constantly recurring. It is part of a phase in evolution.

The most remarkable part of these mercantile operations is that the speculators are in most cases buying and selling what they have not got. They are "cornering" wheat before Mother Nature has brought the grain to bearing. They are raising fictitious values on minerals still in the bosom of the earth, and the operations might be described sweepingly as buying and selling pieces of paper upon which some one has written down a lie. There are very great financial possibilities about this part of human chicanery, and it has been reserved for the New World to bring it to perfection. The operations carried out are often exceedingly ingenious—

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so much so that they seem superhuman at times, and lead the philosopher to wonder if at the other end of these steel nerves of communication there is not a Shadowy Gentleman, not usually mentioned in polite conversation, who has insidiously possessed himself of the termini !

The civilized world was recently treated to a singular spectacle. An American millionaire railway "king" had, for reason of health, journeyed to Europe. In his absence a great effervescence, such as described above, was brought about, and a terrible state of tension ensued. Where was "the master"? the papers asked, and all awaited "the master's hand," as the papers described it. The "master," sick almost unto death, hurried across the Atlantic, and the American financial world surged and howled like an unholy sea, and the disciples were at their wits' end. Presently the steamer was announced off Sandy Hook and came in sight of the Statue of Liberty, and a fleet of screeching tugs fared forth adown the bay to greet the "master" and have his commands. He stumbled to the deck, addressed his followers, and fell into a heap at the gangway. With him fell the price of the pieces of paper before described, and presently the scavenging reporters announced that "two tanks of oxygen" had arrived at the "king's" residence, and a cordon of physicians kept back the public gaze.¹ The unfortunate, dying magnate was severely pestered by Press photographers and reporters. "Do kill one of them," he had said when he

¹ *Vide* the Press, 28 August, 1909.

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fell at the gangway, indicating one of the numerous photographic fiends whose cameras glared upon him from the wharf; for well the sick man knew that his every attitude would be reproduced in the Press on the morrow, vomited abroad in myriads of copies. On the following day a bulletin was issued, imploring the reporters not to crowd so closely round the "king's" house and to withdraw their vigilance; that his case was not desperate, and that he would give an interview later on if the Press would comply with his request. This, however, was only a ruse, in order that another "king" might have an interview with him, before he died, in the interests of the Stock Market. But the millionaire's hours were numbered. In a few days he ceased to be; but he died "in secret," so vital was it considered that the news of his demise should not penetrate to the New York Stock Exchange before the hour for closing; and, although he really expired shortly after mid-day, it was given out that the time of death was half-past three. So commercialism, true to its principles, concocted a lie even at the death-bed. Scarcely was the dead man laid to rest than the financial world and the other commercial monarchs who swayed it, discovered that the bygone magnate had been a disturbing element, and that his decease was rather a matter for congratulation than otherwise! But, on the network of railways which he controlled—64,000 miles—all the trains came to a stop at the moment of his interment, by a preconcerted signal, whether in the busy East, or whether in fruitful Cali-

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fornia or arid Texas, whilst flags were flown at half-mast above railway offices in more than 500 towns across the Continent. This act of reverence or respect, of stopping momentarily the railway traffic, was first carried out at the burial of the assassinated President McKinley. The magnate left his wife an estate and fortune whose value was announced at £53,000,000 sterling, whilst his whole fortune amounted to £60,000,000. The papers recorded that "fifty industrial monarchs" attended his funeral. It is not intended here to hold the deceased railway "king" up to censure, necessarily, but only to illustrate a phase of American life. The vast railway system he controlled had done much to develop various parts of the country.

The immoral operations of trusts and other financial organizations are facilitated by the defective company laws of America. The lack of uniformity in these laws, among the different States of which the Republic is composed, gives rise to great abuses. The condition would be something similar to that brought about by an English company able to set at defiance English company law by setting up its office nominally in a Cornish village, and defrauding the public therefrom. Observers of American company flotations will have been struck by the fact that certain States seem to enjoy a monopoly as headquarters for company offices, and high among them figures the State of New Jersey, for the reason that its legal code is more convenient to the questionable operations of the company-promoter. It has been proposed to remedy this

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state of affairs, and a Bill was recently brought into the Senate of New York State with the object, as its author declared, of "ending the robbery of the public by stock-jobbers and of preventing such rascality in financial institutions as resulted lately in the failure of the biggest banks and trust companies, thereby depriving thousands of depositors of their hard-earned savings. There has been enough of the wholesale issuance of stock without a mere shadow of security behind it."¹ Whether such a measure could be passed is extremely doubtful, and as to its being made universal throughout the States there is no doubt that it would be looked upon as a matter interfering with the internal regime of each State, which is jealously guarded by its own authorities. This chequered variation of the law affects matters of divorce and the liquor traffic equally, as shown elsewhere. It is proposed that directors of new enterprises shall sign statements and deposit these with the Secretary of State, setting forth a full description of the property in question and that its value is equal to the amount of capital to be issued; any false statement to be held to be a felony, and its author to be punished accordingly. Such a measure might have some deterrent effect if it were possible to secure it, but probably the public conscience must be awakened more before much improvement can take place. Yet the hordes of thieving promoters in the United States have, it must be recollected, their counterpart in London, and it has only been the salutary

¹ Extract from the preamble of the Bill.

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effect of British company law which has brought about any improvement. Britain has earned a name throughout the world for fair dealing in business, but British company-promoting rascals in London have been as active as Americans in the United States. Slow is the evolution of real civilization in this respect, and its progress, and indeed its existence are only secured by means of the constant presence and wielding of the "big stick" of the law, in whatever country be it.

Whilst priding ourselves in Britain on far greater business morality, the cosmopolitan observer will be constrained to wish that a little more of the light and air of enterprise would enter into British methods, as regards new ventures. Capital is often too cautious, and defeats its own ends, which is not to be hoarded, but to be put out and "gain its own with usury". There are not wanting critics who state that enterprise in London often stagnates into mere "share peddling"; instead of working in the creation of new fields of finance and industry, at home and oversea. There are frequent periods in London when no one will risk a penny; when the spirit of enterprise seems to have flown; and we ask ourselves the question whether, in this respect, the zenith of Britain has not been reached and she is simply resting on her laurels. The American financier or promoter will open a mine or build a railway whilst the Britisher is looking at the matter on paper, and will do and dare in a way which, if it brings some failures, also brings many successes. To the Americans has fallen the mantle

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of Britain in industrial enterprise, but they have made, in some respects, a far more extended use of that valuable garment than its former owner.

In a subsequent chapter, in comparing American and British methods generally, we have endeavoured to show that there is another point of view from which to regard the "trusts and magnates"—the evolutive point of view. Whilst, however, we may find some evolutionist excuse for these great central administrations of wealth, no line of argument can palliate the dishonesty which attends financial operations so frequently in the United States, and which is interwoven with political methods often; nor yet the frequent misappropriation or stealing of funds in company transactions. It might have been supposed, in a free Republic of the New World, whither men had gone originally to escape persecution for their religious opinions, that systematic robbing of the widow and the orphan would not have appeared as forming an occupation for intelligent beings of a new nation. Far from such a theory being true, it has to be recorded that never in the history of the world have such systematic plans been laid to defraud men and women as have been carried out by the directors of banks and insurance companies of recent years, in the United States, and by the Trusts, and financial operations of the sinister magnates whose names and acts have appeared so prominently in the world's Press. Three years ago civilized countries were startled by a series of frauds upon and collapses of insurance companies in

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America. Funds had been misappropriated, books falsified, and prominent financiers in scores implicated in what was a network of robbery and scandal; and the unfortunate victims throughout the country consisted largely of that middle class which can so ill afford the loss of their savings or policies. Institutions which had been considered unimpeachable were involved in fraud, the prestige of American insurance finance suffered a severe blow everywhere, and it became evident that American financial methods in this respect are still at the age of the "South Sea Bubble".

Following upon these matters came the great "Financial Panic" of 1907: a storm which covered the United States with the wreckage of trusts and companies, and the ruin of individuals and of reputations. Paper stocks and shares became a drug in the market; cheques could not be changed, or only at a heavy discount, and money in cash commanded a large premium. For a period a veritable cyclone of fear and ruin raged; the banks were besieged by frenzied multitudes who surged against their closed doors to withdraw their savings. These matters had a certain marked effect on the markets of other countries; but the general soundness of British financial institutions was shown by the very slight perturbation they experienced. A number of "kings" and "magnates," as a result of fraudulent operations, were reduced to beggary and jail—a castigation they too richly merited. The most serious matters were those of the loaning of huge sums by banks to their own directors, without

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even formalities of security, and the acquiring by directors of banks and trusts of the controlling interest in the shares of other similar institutions by methods which afterwards brought them into the pale of criminal law. The most cynical acts of piracy and fraud were brought home to these American financial buccaneers of the twentieth century, and although the tardy or faulty machinery of the law of the land, or the power of money or influence of bribes caused many to escape, some, nevertheless, exchanged their luxurious abodes for the public prison. Among them were an "Ice King" and a "Copper King" and various Robber-Barons of other persuasions.

The biography of the "Ice King" is of interest, and the termination of his career a salutary warning. He rose from a humble position to one of extreme wealth, amassing a fortune of £5,000,000. But not content with this, he perpetrated frauds by illegal borrowing of the money of depositors in the bank of which he was a controlling director. Then the financial crash of 1907—of which he was the harbinger—brought his dealings to detection, his fortune to ruin, and himself to the Tombs Prison of New York. But American law permitted him to go free on bail. Once more he started, and in the brief period of three months, with the help of his "friends," he made £1,500,000. He was possessed of a singular optimistic magnetism, it was stated, which commanded confidence in his success, and leading financiers of New York trusted him implicitly, nor considered it a dishonour, even after

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his trial, to be associated with him. This latter is a peculiarly American trait, the observant traveller will have noted, whether of the Anglo-American, or whether of the Spanish-American, for there seems to be something in the New World atmosphere which appears to induce an easy and comfortable regard of the unpunished criminal and an admiration of successful guile, rather than an upholding of abstract honour and truth. Well, the "Ice King," secure—as he thought—in his position again, continued gaily on his money-making course. His period of bail came to an end, but he and his friends looked upon that as a mere formality. When, at the conclusion of his trial, however, sentence was pronounced of fourteen years' labour in jail, it was stated that his face in a moment became ten years older. Instead, therefore—unless the Court of Appeal should dishonour American law by acquitting a millionaire malefactor—he, instead of making a fortune at the rate of half a million a month, must labour for eight hours a day in convict stripes. He is described as a model prisoner, to do him justice.¹

The most serious result of these dishonourable matters among America's upper class is not necessarily the loss of money and suspension of business. These are rapidly overcome, and two years after the 1907 panic, the country had almost forgotten the occurrences, and was upon a flood-tide of renewed prosperity. The less palpable matters are the more enduring. First, the American character has lost prestige all over the world.

¹ New York Press, October, 1909.

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Always recognized as of doubtful morality, the rottenness of business ethics in the New World was again brought home to the Old World with appalling force: and whilst no great denouncement of them has been made—for it is a matter of sorrow rather than of anger for Europe, who gave America her heritage—the occurrences have sunk deep, and are lasting. Second, it has increased the menace to capital which, whilst it has always been growing, is become stronger rapidly—the menace of class-hatred and anti-capitalism, which is yet to become the most acute issue of American social life. The enormous class of hand-workers of the United States have grown to think that the financial and Trust class are their mortal enemies, and the movement by the increasing Socialist element has grown with great force—even if it is not called Socialism generally; and only the prosperity of the country, due to its vast size and limitless natural resources, is keeping this force contented for the moment. The terrible resolution shown in the methods of bodies of strikers (especially to those who have witnessed them) is an earnest of what is to come, if the present regimen be not modified. For the punishing of guilty millionaires and the cutting away of the "octopus arms of the Trusts" a strenuous voice arose of recent years.¹ But the power of the American Presidency is but a limited one, and, as it is individually short-lived, is not capable of sustained influence in a particular field.

Nevertheless, there are indications that legisla-

¹ Roosevelt: November 22, 1909.

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tions against Trusts, especially where it has been proved that these have been operating illegally or fraudulently, may result in the crippling or dissolution of these. Announcements in the Press regarding one of the most powerful of these corporations, made recently, shows that the storm is gathering.¹ "The action of the Government brought in 1906 to dissolve the Standard Oil Company, of New Jersey, the parent company of the Oil Trust, has been decided in favour of the Government by the Judge of the Missouri District Court. The Trust will be dissolved in thirty days, unless it appeals, which of course it will do. The Judge holds that the Standard Oil Company has been a monopoly suppressing competition since 1879, and consequently it has been violating the Anti-Trust Law ever since 1890." Severe strictures have always been made by the Press regarding this particular concern, whose—alleged—wrongdoing has been a subject for public attention for years, as described on a subsequent page. The further interesting announcement was made that the Press endeavoured to obtain an opinion from the "Oil King," upon the matter—but were informed that the "monarch" had had his telephone removed, and that "watchmen at the barred gates refused reporters access to his estate". However, this apparently portentous decision of the law may mean little or nothing, as the close student of American affairs will readily understand.

Other "trusts" or "magnates," which have

¹ 22 November, 1909.

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come under public or Governmental condemnation, are the "Beef Trust," and the cotton "cornerers". The extraordinary allegations made against the tinned meat industry of Chicago recently will not be easily forgotten.¹ Probably most wise persons refrain from eating American tinned meats,—not only American, but those from any other source—for this class of provision is probably the dearest and most doubtful of any. This, however, by the way. The Press recently² gave us the following interesting item concerning the doings of the "Beef Trust". "The head of the People's Institute, of New York, in his address, demands an investigation of the methods of the Beef Trust, which, he states, are responsible partly for the sufferings of the working classes, in the high price of food. He denied the assertions of the Trust magnates that the high prices are the natural result of supply and demand, and produced figures which, it was stated, had been given by the magnates themselves to the Stock Exchange authorities, and which had never been obtainable before, showing the enormous profits earned by one of the principal meat packing companies. For the year ending in October,³ it was shown that the earnings, clear of all taxes, expenses, and interest in bonds, had reached the huge total of nearly £1,500,000 ; or about 35 per cent upon the company's stock." The Beef Trust, it will be recollected by the British reader, is supposed to have designs upon the control of British supplies of meat !

¹ As set forth in "The Jungle".

² November 27, 1909.

³ 1909.

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A further interesting phase of the people's struggle with this particular "octopus" is shown by the following account from Washington.¹ So deeply did the people resent the high prices that a boycott was organized against the consumption of meat:—

"The extraordinary 'no-meat' revolt against the Beef Trust is still spreading, and increased numbers have joined the movement. The labourers of several more cities have given their adherence, and the movement has now become a national one. It is stated that to date 3,000,000 people have enrolled themselves under the pledge not to eat meat for a period of thirty or forty days. Prices of meat have already begun to fall, and, even in Chicago, the headquarters of the Trust, beef and other meat can be bought nearly 4d. a pound cheaper than before the boycott began. The President has made it known that his fullest sympathy goes out to the fighters of the Meat Trust, and he has promised to consider the request to investigate the Trust's business. The Secretary of Agriculture issues a statement declaring that live-stock is more abundant than ever, and that the farmer is not receiving more payment for his cattle which he sells to the Trust, proving that the combine has raised the prices for its own purpose. The Government charges that the directors of the great packing houses are also directors of the National Packing Company, or, in other words, that the Trust's packing houses and the National Packing Company are working in complete unison with regard to fixing the price and

¹ *Vide* the London Press, 24 January, 1910.

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the keeping back or issuing of supplies. It is also alleged that the price the packers pay for their raw meats has not advanced, and that the increased prices charged the retailer are the packing houses' increased profits." But the boycott could not last.

As to the cotton magnates, the following extract from the *Press*¹ will sufficiently indicate popular feeling towards them, and their bearing upon communities even beyond their own immediate habitat. "The President of the International Cotton Federation says that it is true that the cotton mills of Lancashire are running short. But what is the cause, and why are the papers silent as to that cause? The cause is not confined to England; it is common to all cotton-using countries, and has its root in the 'cornering' operations of American speculators, who, to advance their own sordid ends, scruple not to inflict untold sufferings on multitudes of poor people." The public censure recently visited upon an American Cotton "King," who somewhat rashly visited the Manchester Exchange, was an indication of British feeling on the matter.² Its moral effect was not without value.

As regards the effect of American Trusts, however, on British industries or consumers, it is almost pusillanimous to complain. Great Britain, with her enormous Colonial areas, is the owner of lands of equal value in cotton- or beef-producing capacity, or anything else, with the Americans, and should dispose her surplus labour towards the production of raw material, instead of seeking to em-

¹ The "*Manchester Guardian*".

² April, 1910.

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ploy it solely in manufacture. Possibly this fact is becoming evident. Unemployment in Britain is forcing it home.¹

As to the Sugar Trust the indictments against it were serious, and showed that its employees had been systematically defrauding the United States Government by false weighing, in collusion with the custom house officials. Thus we read that "Over seventy employees of the customs service at New York have been removed as a result of the recent investigation into the alleged weighing frauds in connexion with the American Sugar Refining Company".²

One of the largest importers of sugar and coffee, independent of the Trust, was also proceeded against³ for fraudulent weighing, and was obliged to pay over the sum of £139,000 as arrears of duty. With regard to the Sugar Trust it was shown that some ingenious manipulation of the scales, by means of secret wires, had been arranged.

The American Trusts are a modern growth of commercialism; but the words of Holy Writ seem to show us that such things have occurred before. Well might some modern "Amos" arise at this period of America's civilization, and address himself to those who "corner" wheat before it is grown, and who worship and pursue the dollar so strenuously. "Hear this, O ye that swallow up

¹ See my lecture before the Royal Society of Arts, February, 1910, on "Your Share of Empire".

² "Pall Mall Gazette," 8 December, 1909.

³ December, 1909.

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the needy, even to make the poor of the land to fail, saying, When will the new moon be gone, that we may sell corn: and the Sabbath, that we may set forth wheat, making the ephah small, and the shekel great, and falsifying the balances by deceit? That we may buy the poor for silver, and the needy for a pair of shoes; yea, and sell the refuse of the wheat."¹ The enterprising wheat kings of Chicago and New York, if they ever study the fascinating lore of a certain Book (which is doubtful) would find that they are not the originators of these ingenious operations: that history in the twentieth century in America (and elsewhere) seems to be repeating itself, and that the philosophers and prophets of the seventh and eighth centuries B.C. might almost be addressing a modern business community. Also, it might be well to recollect that some of the denunciations of the prophets were prophetic. Amos spoke "two years before the earthquake"; and the punishment of whole communities sometimes followed upon the famous jeremiads!

¹ The Book of Amos, chapter viii. 4-6.

CHAPTER XII

THE WAR OF STEEL

The American Vulcan—England in a second place—The inevitable in mining—Vast coal and iron deposits—Favourable conditions for production—The “Black Country” of America—A ruthless war—The Steel Trust—Its dividends—The firing-line—Appalling accidents—Death of “Bill” Jones—Hushing-up the deaths of workmen—Callousness and brutality—The unfortunate foreign workmen—The devil’s flower-pot—The Morgues—Dead men on the scrap-heap—The road to hell—Retribution yet to come—More dividends—The “octopus” and Britain—The menace of labour organizations

It would be impossible in the space of this work, to describe in detail the great industries which have brought the United States nigh to assuming the leadership of the industrial world. Nor would it be my purpose so to describe them, in a book which aims at a general view principally. But to understand the place of America in the evolution of civilization we must give some heed to the mighty work which the American Vulcan is carrying on. Steel, its production and fashioning, occupies first place, and the names of “Steel Trusts” and “Steel Kings” have spread far beyond America’s shores, to appear vaguely before the eyes of British and other European readers.

This romance, or war, of steel, by whichever

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fanciful term we may designate it, has been brought about by the existence in certain parts of the American subsoil of enormous deposits of iron ore and coal; the same elements, we shall recollect, which helped to make Britain famous in the past century, and gave her the leadership of manufacturing industry. That time is past. England no longer holds, nor ever will hold again, first place in the production of iron and steel; simply for the reason that she has reached the limit of the native abilities of her soil. The fact may have caused us—as Britons—a pang of regret, but there are matters of philosophical compensation attending it. The digging and manipulation of iron and coal are only phases in any nation's life, mainly because there must always come a time when these valuable minerals will have been worked out, leaving gaping holes in the earth; partly because it is a more or less brutal, if necessary, part of wealth production; which builds up capital upon which a nation must at length retire inevitably, to occupy itself (let us hope) with a quieter civilization, and a more intensive cultivation of its soil and its people.

The United States has been fortunate in having, as far as we know at present, the most extensive deposits of iron and coal on the surface of the globe. These great deposits and the stupendous steel-making mills erected upon them, may be said to occupy a huge crescent-shaped zone extending from the Mesaba iron-ore bearing range in Northern Minnesota, on the border of Canada, trending eastwardly through Michigan and Pennsylvania and traversing

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Tennessee to Alabama; a wide sweep of territory perhaps two thousand miles in length. Duluth, Chicago, Pittsburg, Eastern Ohio, Western Pennsylvania, Tennessee and Alabama, are some of the principal seats of iron and coal production and manufacture in this large belt.

But the mere existence of the mineral deposits alone would not be sufficient for profitable production; and another fortunate element attends the industry; that of the occurrence of the minerals under such conditions permitting extraction from the earth in the cheapest way, in some cases. In the district of Birmingham, Alabama—one of the most famous centres—the raw material is dug, and the finished product turned out on the spot. When coal, iron and fluxes can be dug from the hills which rise up from the back of the works, and can be run down a shute from the mine into the furnace, production may well be cheap. Stretching away from Birmingham, the narrow valley in which the furnaces are situated is crowned on either hand by the ridges of the mineral deposits; iron ore on the one side, coal on the other. As we approach the place towards night a brilliant glow appears through the gloom, which will cause the British traveller to recollect the lurid furnaces of his own “Black Country”. Here, in this valley, close along the railway, stretches an array of coke ovens, vomiting yellow flames; whilst a dense pall of smoke covers the landscape and gives it that infernal aspect common to such places. Even in daylight the appearance of the place is scarcely less

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weird and oppressive—oppressive that is according to the point of view from which we consider it. It is one of those scenes we do not love to dwell in, just as the Black Country of the English Midlands repels us ; and although we may become somewhat accustomed to it, we shall always reflect with satisfaction that, one day, the cinder heaps will be clothed again with green.

The production of steel may be likened to some infernal battle ; to which the workers become used after a period, much as doubtless the crew of a battleship would accustom themselves to daily engagements with an enemy. The noises must be equally appalling, the awful glare of furnaces, and cauldrons of molten metal ; the squeezing into bar and rail of glowing ingots in the embrace of rolling mill and steam hammer. It is a war in other respects, for, as mentioned elsewhere, human life is ruthlessly sacrificed in it ; not purposely, but by the haste for production. Such are the impressions we gather from life and travel in the great manufacturing centres of the United States, and that they are not exaggerated fancies will be evident from an American description of the same conditions, which I will quote here, as an impressive picture of the operations of the Steel Trust :—

“The directors of the United States Steel Corporation are in session at their Broadway offices in New York. From that directors’ room invisible wires stretch out to thousands of offices in Boston, New York, San Francisco ; to tens of thousands of stock holders’ names in cities and hamlets the

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country wide, to Stock Exchanges the world over. Before the closed door and crowding near it is a group of young men, note-books in hand, nervously alert, impatient. From them and in earshot array all the way down to the telephone booths on the first floor, is a line of messengers ready to hurry along a winged announcement the moment it flutters from that door. At the other end of the telephone wires and in every newspaper and news association office in the city, an editor is listening intently for the 'ting-a-ling' of his 'phone, and the presses are waiting for a single magic word. Now it comes. The door opens and the young men charge it. The men who file out are the business giants of the New World, but just now their imposing individualities are dwarfed beside the mighty significance of that expected word.

"'What is it?' 'How much?' 'The figure?'" A momentary silence follows as a sleek-looking secretary walks to the front and makes a matter-of-fact announcement:—

"'Three-quarters!'"

"'Three-quarters!'" The young men—they know the news value of the announcement—repeat it excitedly. 'Three-quarters—three-quarters—three-quarters,' sing-song like, the word goes down along the human telephone line, into the booths, over the wires, and in a fraction of a minute typewriters are clicking furiously and big presses are pounding and telegraph wires are speeding the news to all the world. Three-quarters of one per cent quarterly dividend, or three per cent annual

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dividend on more than half a billion of common stock, more than fifteen million dollars! Add to this over twenty-five millions in preferred stock dividends, other appropriations in replacements, sinking funds and surplus net incomes and the grand total earnings greatly exceed one hundred millions, or two million dollars a week. Two million dollars a week wrung from the earth, from veins and beds of iron ore and coal! What a gigantic struggle! What a terrific war! And war it is. Conceive, if you like, that this solemn meeting at No. 71 Broadway is a conference of generals. It has all that significance—as though the fate of a nation was hanging in the balance. Without are the crowds watching in hushed suspense the bulletin boards, waiting for the word.

“The army is in the field, a mighty army in a field that roars by day with the rumbling blast of furnaces, the deafening ‘clang-clang’ of mills, and is lit by night with the yellow flame of coke ovens and the white flare of steel converters. Over all hangs the dust of battle, a great murky cloud of grit and smut, out of which the lofty mill stacks rise like grim sentinels. The firing line straddles half a continent All along the line the men—several hundred thousand of them—are in the trenches. Day and night there is no cessation of the conflict.

“It is a relentless war. Up in a mining town in the Lake Superior region there are two morgues, both of which are kept well filled with dead Finlanders. Down in Alabama a string of cable cars has run amuck and they are picking bodies from the

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debris. In Wilkesbarre a steel worker jumps back from a splash of white hot liquid steel, curses, pulls down his hat and walks back to his place beside the vat of molten metal. In Pittsburg a blast furnace explodes, kills seven men, and their companions; a crew of Slavs and Huns, go on working alongside the dead bodies as though nothing had happened. Wherever the conflict deepens, where mills loom up with their gigantic, majestic machines of war—in Duluth, Chicago, Pittsburg and Eastern Ohio, Western Pennsylvania, Tennessee and Alabama—big hospitals stand open and ambulances are ready, day and night. In one big plant, says a superintendent, the accidents each year—a number of them fatal ones—will foot up to two thousand.

“Such, very briefly, is the field and such the conflict. A full description of the war of steel would fill many volumes and give an impression beside which the stress and toil of an international conflict would seem almost inconsequential. It began a score of years ago with the belief in the minds of several men, and the fierce determination in at least one man’s rugged breast, that the United States could beat the world in the rapid and economical production of iron and steel. That one man was Captain ‘Bill’ Jones.¹ . . . He received the first big salary in the new industrial America that was then to be. It was greater than that granted to the President of the United States. Captain Jones got his title in the Civil War. He came through that terrible four years’ strife with his life,

¹ Bill Jones was a Cornishman.

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but he was destined to lose it in the new kind of war that is begot of peace. One day there was a 'bridge' in the old Braddock furnace, east of Pittsburg, on the Monongahela River. A 'bridge' or 'hang' is a suspended formation of ore, coke and limestone, a stoppage somewhere within and above the base of the huge cylindrical dome of the furnace; and it must be broken before the molten iron can be disgorged at the base. A squad of men was engaged in the task, with Captain 'Bill' Jones, in his usual place, at their head. That position, by the way, is filled just as courageously to-day by every line officer in the present gigantic industry. There are no differentiations of danger between superintendent and worker. Only the generals direct their industry from the safe seclusion of a private office. And they are men who have undergone the same risks and worked their way up from the danger line. The 'bridge' broke unexpectedly that day at Braddock and the thousand ton mass of rock came down with a crash that disrupted the steel-bound base of the furnace. There was an ear-splitting roar, a great shower of brilliant yellow sparks in a blue cloud of deadly suffocating gases, and then huge, round jets of all-consuming white molten metal. When the gas cloud lifted there were several distorted figures on the sand bed of the pig-casting floor, one man lying with an outstretched arm that slowly disappeared as a crusting puddle of red metal crept nearer to him, and over in a ditch lay the body of Captain Bill Jones. He was a man of extraordinary

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strength and agility, and with a mighty backward spring he had almost cleared the danger zone ; not quite, for he was badly burned by the molten spray. These injuries, however, his amazing vitality would have triumphed over, but in falling his skull was broken against the iron rim of a car, and he died a few hours later, mourned by all, and followed to this day by the proud reminiscence of ‘ I worked with Captain “ Bill ” Jones ’.

“ The death of Captain Jones was widely commented on. *But it was decidedly characteristic of the new era to be that little mention was made and no record kept of the men whose charred remains were found near him.*”¹

The italics are my own but the words are those of the pressman ; and they express the appalling truth of the custom of hushing-up and belittling the deaths of those unfortunates who are so frequently destroyed ; especially when they are “ Dagoes ” or “ Dutchmen ”. Let us look farther into this account.

“ ‘ Quick, cheap production ! ’ That is the watch-word. To beat the record of yesterday, of last month, of last year ; to help raise that dividend of ‘ three-quarters ’ ! It is a wonderful struggle. Men and fortunes are made with the record. Men are lost, too ; but what of it ? Of what consequence are nondescript humans, a pack of Huns, Slavs, Italians here and there, along the great firing line, as compared with the titanic struggle and the common end in view—the attainment of greater dividends

¹ This account is from “ The New York Herald ”.

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on a near billion capitalization and the seal of American industrial supremacy? Let's get within the breastworks and see how it feels personally to be caught in the current of the mighty conflict. Up against the foreground, towering to a height of 150 feet, arise the big round stacks of the blast furnaces. Trestles run up to them from the spur tracks below and dump cars are ceaselessly feeding them. Now they are gorged with thousands of tons of undigested coke and ore, shaking, roaring with the blast, belching forth when the tops are opened murky yellow flames which make the heavens glow for miles around. The site is a big, ragged gap, and in a sandy hill-side. Around the cliff is a line of labourers' houses, unpainted, stained with smoke; a commissary, a chemist's laboratory. Down in the pit, fore and aft of the blast furnaces, is a scene absorbing, enchanting, terrifying at times. All is heat and glare and stress. When the tapping holes are opened streams of yellow metal gush out, running in sparkling rivulets along the grooves of the casting sand, or into huge ladles which are hurried away by puffing, clanging donkey engines. More engines, clamouring uproariously for right of way, dash in and out with huge pots, carrying the aftermath of liquid, ugly-coloured slag. Humans seem out of place in this dynamic arena, but they are there. They cluster around the tapping holes, bodies bared to the waist and bare flesh shining with sweat, faces distorted with heat, poking at the gleaming holes with long iron bars. And there are more of them in the casting yard, skipping about

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with frantic, exaggerated gestures among the fiery streams of metal. Hoarse commands and strident cries rise clear above the deafening din of the blast. Up and down the height of each furnace stack there is a play of ghastly blue flames about the crevices. There are gases—burning, asphyxiating, deadly. Employees must remember and not get near them. At the base of the furnace that tapping hole is a constant source of danger. Sometimes the fire brick lining wears thin and through and the water coil leaks; then when intense heat meets water there's a flash, a roar, a rain of molten iron and charred corpses. Sometimes in the rattlety-bang-bang of the driven work one of these loaded ladles tips, with a splash of destruction. A thirty-ton one spilled its infernal load here once, and twelve men perished as the fiery flood ate its way through the posts of the casting-shed and let the roof down upon a waste of metal, men and sand. Then out of the roar and rush those 'dinky' locomotives are stealing this way and that. A man with two eyes on his work must have a third one in the back of his head to watch them. There is often no warning. Said a Slav who was tossed into a ditch and nearly killed by one: 'No choo-choo, no lingling, just Damn you; get out of way!'

"Over in the great steel mills, connected with many wriggling lines of railroad track, the desperate energy of the casting yard seems doubled. More frantic haste, more fire and roar and smoke, more harsh cries, more towering machines of diabolical majesty! The pouring floor of the big open hearth

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mill stretches away hundreds of feet into dim murkiness. On either side are flaring rows of three mouthed furnaces, each of them boiling into steel a half-hundred tons of white-hot iron. In between and overhead gigantic cranes are travelling to and fro, swinging mammoth pots of slag. In the Bessemer mill huge egg-shaped converters sway, swing and tilt with their fifteen-ton loads of fiery liquid, nodding like things possessed, and filling the mill when they discharge their contents with a myriad cloud of multicoloured sparks, which perforate the clothes of the men and sometimes sting into the flesh. 'The devil's flower-pot' they call the weird display, and 'hot tamales' is the cheerful name given the big cast ingots of steel, which are whirled away on flat cars while their cores are still red with molten metal. The merciless aspect of the mills is hypnotizing. Its processes are titanic, superhuman; and as you watch their resistless, remorseless rush the dynamic song of them transforms your being and you forget that there are such things as human fear, human pain—yes, human souls. Anyway, of what consequence are they here? And then you realize why it takes lives to make steel. The men get careless. You cannot control them. If you, as an onlooker, feel that way, it is easy enough to conceive how men who work daily in this crushing environment come to regard death as an insignificant matter. The keeper of the two morgues up in that Lake Superior mining town laughed at a pitying remark made about his charges. 'These fellows don't mind death,' said he; 'not half as much as

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you mind having a tooth pulled.' And those Slavs in Pittsburg, working alongside the bodies of their dead comrades, voice the same spirit—'Dead man no good. Throw him on the scrap heap,' they say. Nothing must interfere with 'the job'. Daily they take chances, superintendent and worker alike—big chances, just to hurry along the mighty rush. 'We figure,' said a superintendent, pointing at a stack, 'that lining to make so much iron, and the sooner it makes it the better'. They supply precautions and neglect them. It is all typically American. One is reminded of Kipling's American engine-driver. 'Our bridges,' said the latter cheerfully, 'are meant to last forever. We guess that they will. Sometimes we guess our way over them—to the depot. Sometimes we guess ourselves—into hell.'"

This journalist of the vivid pen, after moralizing somewhat upon the matter, continues:—

"Twenty years before that, it was customary to shut down an entire plant when a steelworker died, and about this time Queen Victoria, seated upon a beautiful green lawn near Birmingham, England, witnessed a model production process of steel in a miniature plant, in which the steel workers moved about in white duck suits.

"That was the old way, the nice, placid, safe English way. To-day we have the American way, and view it from any standpoint you will you are apt to come to the conclusion that after all it is the inevitable way, that we are undergoing a tremendous era in the world's progress, and despite the frightful, regular loss of life (there are few plants

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to-day not taking every possible precaution against it) there is absolutely no way out of it."

There is no way out of it at present, either until the coal and iron are exhausted, or until labouring man shall have learnt the true value and meaning of labour—a lesson the capitalist alone will never learn. The United States Steel Corporation or Trust is not a figure which can command the respect of any thoughtful man. Its operations are unnatural, and like all such awaits its own turn for the inevitable passing through "the mills of the gods". Whilst this strenuous fighting in the burning fiery furnaces is going on we read the following in our morning paper. "The Steel Trust family feast at the Astor Gallery of the Waldorf Hotel was the scene of a banquet which Americans proudly declare could not be equalled in any other country in the world. Among the diners were the heads of every steel manufacturing concern and allied industries in America. Thirty of the guests alone, according to impressive lists tabulated by fascinated reporters, would have been able to sign cheques for a total amount of £300,000,000 sterling." The strenuous conditions of this steel warfare may be judged in a sense, by regarding the dividends earned, which, as we have seen in the foregoing extract, are at times only $\frac{3}{4}$ of 1 per cent for the quarter on the common stock. A still more strenuous effort resulted in 1 per cent per quarter or 4 per cent per annum, on the common stock; whilst the preferred stock received 7 per cent; equal to a total earning for the quarter of somewhat over

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\$38,000,000, representing orders for steel aggregating 4,750,000 tons. The calculated total earnings for the year were \$130,000,000¹ or say, £26,000,000 sterling—something less than the annual output of gold on the African Rand.

So rapid has been the recovery of business since the financial panic of 1907, and so great the demand for steel, that we are told the Corporation has added furnaces to increase its yearly capacity by one and a third million tons, at a cost of \$40,000,000, in the State of Indiana. Thus does this great enterprise continue to grow, notwithstanding constant rumours of its impending dissolution; which, indeed, a turn of circumstance might bring about at any time. Perhaps this possibility is reflected in the somewhat frigid attitude of the general public towards the shares.

Is this great “octopus,” as the American pressman loves to term the trusts, likely to be able to monopolize the whole of the steel-producing trade of the United States, or—more—to swamp that of Britain? At present it only embodies about fifty per cent of American steel output. Even this is greater than the whole combined capacity of British iron-producing works. But it is very doubtful if the trust can extend its power much, or permanently. It is a question mainly of the cost of production of ore and fuel; and other ore-fields have been recently discovered and taken possession of by rival concerns in America. As to “dumping” on British shores, such as has formerly taken

¹ “Wall Street Journal,” October, 1909.

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place, if conditions permitted it again it would only be an added incentive to the awakening spirit of "protection" in Britain against foreign manufactures, and must be rendered impossible by reason of import duties. Probably the Steel Trust is a thing of ephemeral growth which will not last long in the history of the nation which gave it birth. Powerful enemies may rise against it, not necessarily from the government of the country but from the organization of labour. Already some preliminary skirmishes are reported. During the closing days of 1909 the powerful organization known as the American Federation of Labour, met to consider the advisability of declaring war on the Steel Trust, and issued a decree, which was sent to the President of the United States and the Government. Part of this decree ran as follows:—

"The gigantic trust of the United States Steel Corporation is using its great wealth and power in an effort to rob the toilers of the right of American manhood to an opportunity to resist its farther encroachments. Grown rich by the consent of the people, the corporation in its mad greed sweeps aside, makes or unmakes the law, its enactors and its executors, and now it is engaged in an effort to destroy the only factor—the organization of its employees—standing between it and unlimited and unbridled industrial, political, social and moral carnage." It was expected that 2,000,000 workers would become embodied in the movement.

What will be the outcome of this relentless and remorseless struggle; this acute phase of com-

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mercialism such as the world has never seen before ? It would be rash to prophesy. But we might cast a philosophical eye upon the future and suppose, or hope, that when the irresistible force has met the immovable object, evolution will be satisfied, and perhaps wise capitalists will satisfy justly clamouring labour by turning the whole machine into a co-operative concern.

CHAPTER XIII

THE WORKERS AND THE STRIKERS

Gentler industries—The god of opportunity—Huge stores—The strikes—Soulless employers—Savage employees—Dutchmen and Dagoes—Brutal policemen—Strike repression—The disillusioned immigrant—Determined strikers—Pitched battles—Women as strikers—Money-getting attitude at fault—Trust-baiting—Crimes against foreign workmen—Lurid Socialistic fires—Utopia!

It is not to be supposed that all American industries partake of the strenuous and ruthless character such as characterize the steel industry, in some of its aspects. There are, of course, great bodies of workers in every conceivable field who pass their lives in contentment and security, earning good pay, and pursuing that individual happiness which the United States Constitution, or Declaration of Rights has declared to be the legitimate aim of man. Wherever we may journey, from New York to the Lake region, from the Mississippi Valley to the Pacific Coast, we shall encounter great cities and centres of industry, splendidly constructed, excellently organized, and by no means giving us the impression of a deadly struggle in which the weaker are crushed ruthlessly against the wall of circumstance. Just as there is an element of romance and interest about

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war—apart from its horrors—so there is a similar side to the war of commerce; and perhaps it is more palpably displayed in the United States than in Britain or Germany. Be the struggle what it may, there is always the vista of opportunity before it; towards which the hurrying crowd is pouring.

These great moving crowds we meet in all American cities. They are well-dressed, eager; hurrying to and from suburban homes, thronging offices, shops, and streets, all with the directness of ants, seeing little but their own immediate purpose. Great crowds of workers, men and women, are occupied by the peaceful “dry-goods” businesses, those enormous emporiums of clothing and textile materials which are so marked a feature of these cities; whilst well-equipped shops, offices, and warehouses line every business street and absorb the myriad workers we encounter morning and evening upon the busy pavements, or crowding the endless lines of street cars.

But we must now glance at the other side of the picture of wage-earning again. The “strikes” in the United States are one of the most marked features of industrial life. Very generally, although of course not always, they are the result of wage-manipulation by “trusts,” or other powerful combines and companies. The foreign observer will find it difficult to preserve an impartial view of the causes of these matters, or to know upon which side to bestow his sympathy. The methods of the employers are often oppressive and abhorrent; whilst the bloodthirsty savagery to which the strikers

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allow themselves to be incited almost alienates from them, even in a just cause, the partisanship of the ordinary citizen. In general terms it may be said, however, that the Press and public largely side with the strikers, or preserve a neutral attitude. "Trust-baiting," moreover, is a useful game for the pressman, from the point of view of newspaper circulation.

Two main elements are to be considered in this frequent, almost constant, savage social warfare. The first is, that American industrial corporations are generally soulless organizations whose only motto is to wring profit from their operations regardless of the human element; and the second, that the working class has been brought up to a high pitch of socialistic tension. The clashing of these two elements is often accompanied by blood, steel, and gunpowder. Another factor to be recollected is that a large proportion of the workers in the mills, or on the great construction works, are foreigners—Europeans mainly—Hungarians, Italians and others, who, in most cases, know no word of English, and who, often drawn from the lowest elements of their native land, are accustomed to settle differences with weapons and bloodshed. The native-born American is almost swamped by the multitude of "Dagoes" and "Dutchmen"—slang terms for the peoples of the Latin race and for the German and Scandinavian respectively. What has been said as to the proportion of native Americans and immigrating foreigners elsewhere in these pages bears largely upon the subject. An-

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other element which enters into these matters is the brutality of the American police, who, as elsewhere described, are generally Irishmen, the native clubbing instincts of their race augmented by the perverting atmosphere of the Republic, a community where the sacredness of human life is relatively low. The power and brutality of the American police is incredible to the Englishman, unless he has witnessed it: and their behaviour is such as would not be tolerated for a day in Great Britain. In this connexion it is to be recollected that a heterogeneous and ruffianly element has often to be dealt with among the populace in American towns, with whom any kid-glove methods would be useless. Nevertheless, this does not excuse arbitrary and vindictive brutality. Moreover, the American police are much behind their European confrères in the matters of detection, conviction and punishment of crime. The *suaviter in modo* and *fortiter in re*, is an unknown element in the United States, where aggressive incivility is the note of officialdom, under present development.

To return to the subject of strikes, these are often marked by frenzied riots and bloodshed, as before stated. The incidents of a large strike are often as follows: a railway, street car, or industrial or manufacturing trust or company decides to reduce wages; a strike follows, peaceable until the employers begin to introduce strike-breakers or "blacklegs" (as a meaningless popular term has it). Indignant at this, the strikers follow out the methods well enough known in England, of intimi-

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dation and even of direct attack and destruction. In the United States this is resisted first by the police, and when their forces are insufficient, which generally happens, the State militia is called out by order of the governor of the particular State. If, however, he refuses to act, or from other reasons the force is inadequate, "United States troops," that is, the regular forces of the Republic, may enter upon the scene, and sometimes this is necessary. The methods of repression which follow are—often necessarily—those which we are accustomed to read about from Russia, in the case of political meetings. Sabres, revolvers and carbines are freely used, and at times machine guns. The strikers themselves exhibit the utmost tenacity and brutality. There is something about the spirit of American life which these low-class European immigrants—peaceable enough on their own country-side of Hungary or Italy—absorb, which enflames evil passions. We see it in the Irish policemen of New York and elsewhere. It is as if the long-repressed European peasant, on arriving in the land which has been represented to him as "free," enters upon licence, thinking it liberty. Probably there is often a bitter disillusionment attending him. He may have left the pastoral scenes and old-established regime of some monarchical country to find, in a new world upon which he had built his hopes, higher wages—yes: but of man's humanity to man, of love, virtue and brotherhood, far less than in those old lands he has left for ever. He grasps the fact that life in the United States is, for him, part of a brutal machine,

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a refinedly heartless world where devotion and reverence are things which have no place before the new religion of money-getting and the "monarchical" system of America's industries. There is, of course, a brighter side to the picture. The sturdy spirits fight their way out to prosperity: they amass wealth from their good pay—or what seems wealth to them—and their children are Americans, English-speaking, and imbued with the progressive, if material, American spirit.

So this mixture of primitive simplicity and awakened Republicanism arms the workers with marked persistence. During the strikes, works and cities are in a state of siege, and life and property in constant jeopardy. A few years ago, whilst I was in New York, a strike arose upon the building of a great reservoir and water-works in that State. The workmen were principally Italians—spade work is largely performed by these people—and they obtained possession of two Gatling guns and intrenched themselves upon a hill, and for days defied the forces of State police and militia sent against them.

But the most constant strikes take place at the great manufacturing centres. Pittsburg, the famous iron and coal city, has suffered severely from these of recent years, as Chicago formerly suffered. Recently, a serious occurrence of this nature took place in Pittsburg at a car-building works. The strikers, resenting the operations of the police, congregated 10,000 strong, mostly foreigners, and bombarded the police, who were fortified within

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the walls of the manufactory. The police made a sortie, in bands of fifty, firing their carbines in the air and intimidating the rioters momentarily; but these gathered again, with a fusillade of brickbats and revolver shots, and the police retaliated with ball cartridge, killing and wounding a considerable number of strikers. Several weeks elapsed in disorder, and martial law was at length proclaimed; and the strikers buried their dead under the supervision of the State police. All regular traffic and business in the vicinity was stopped, but the strikers were not subdued, and a charge was made upon them by troopers, who mowed them down with their weapons. On this occasion the women took an active part, secreting revolvers in their stockings and baskets, and shooting at the police, relying on the unwillingness of constables to use physical force against them, for it is a marked trait of the American character, for which credit must be given, that Americans do not love to lay violent hands upon women on these occasions. Indeed, in a certain sense, America may be termed a "woman's country". But these scruples were soon overcome and the stern order was issued—"Send the women either to their homes or to the hospitals!" and no mercy was shown. The arrogant use of power by the American police was shown in the number of innocent victims of their violence. Among them was a leading physician who happened to be talking with a friend at a street corner, and who, having been ordered to move on by a policeman, hesitated an instant, as most men would do, upon being brut-

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ally addressed ; and he was clubbed and felled to the ground, and lay in a precarious condition at the hospital. Such incidents are very common at American street disturbances. One of the hotels of the place was occupied by troopers, whose rifles bristled from the windows. Attempts were made by the strikers to blow up the building with dynamite, and such scenes of disorder and bloodshed took place in that industrial community as may well give the student of American life food for thought.

Whilst it would be as unjust to pretend that the fault of these strikes lies with the employer always in America, any more than in Britain ; nevertheless it is the sheer money-getting attitude adopted in the United States which is mainly at the bottom of these frequent disorders. In the above case the strikers felt themselves bitterly aggrieved by a species of "pooling system" of payment enforced by the company, instead of individual receipt of wages, and when, it is stated, they asked for arbitration the only rejoinder made—and it is a common one in America—was that they could take it or leave it. Wages had been reduced as a result of the great panic caused by the trusts, which has been described ; and the Press of the country was generally hostile to the employers in this instance, and indulged in animadversions against the millionaire owners. Indeed, it became necessary for the Federal authorities to investigate the charges made against the directors, of peonage and forcible detention of workmen. Whilst these kind of charges are often flung broadcast, as part of the new sport

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of "trust-baiting," any observant traveller in the United States, who has had occasion to deal with these great manufacturing centres, knows that brutality and repression are exercised upon the unfortunate foreign workmen, who are unable to speak English or understand their rights; and crimes are committed which will not bear the light of day. The instinct of slavery still remains to some extent among the white Americans. They are an intelligent and progressive people who are able to carry out a great deal more work than their own hands can perform; and just as the slave-owners were confronted with the same necessity for labour, and so imported negroes to do their work, so do the present governing class oppress the poor workers in a different form of slavery, which only time and the organization of labour in its own defence can eradicate. As a matter of fact, if the immigration of the labourer from Europe to the United States were to come to a stop, the industries and consequent industrial output of the country would be greatly curtailed, and in many cases would cease altogether. The present lavish supply of cheap human labour can scarcely last, just as the lavish supply of raw material is not limitless.

Thus we mark how similar, in some respects, are the conditions of labour in America to those of Europe. If there is more peace and prosperity at times, and less unemployment—as is undoubtedly the case—it is due largely to the huge area and wealth of natural resources of the land. On the other hand there are lurid fires of discontent and

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socialistic purpose underlying it all, which, as before remarked, are only held in temporary leash. The moment prosperity should seriously fail the volcano might overflow. Some country, in the future, will perforce be the scene of such an eruption, by which the artificiality and oppressiveness of modern industrial conditions will be broken down, and some new phase of equilibrium and a simpler life become instituted for the people as a whole. Where will this eruption first occur—in the New World, or the Old? Which will be the community first to throw off the bonds of the sheer commercialism which eats at the heart of Christianity, and which bids us call all hopes of millennium but a Utopian dream.

CHAPTER XIV

THE SINS OF DEMOCRACY

Is America good or evil?—A catalogue of crimes—Robbery and murder—"Unwritten laws"—The revolver as executive—Tammany—"Graft," "boodle"—Police corruption—American reporters—The Press and the police—The unspeakable Donohue—Irish and politics—Discourteous American police—Crime in New York—The power of organization—The moral of Tammany

IF there were a Goddess of Democracy, we might, in our study of the details of American life, sometimes fancy her shedding tears; weeping silently as she gazed down upon the New World; which has been called into being in her name, to "redress the balance of the old"! To consider the list of constant crimes committed in the United States, political and social, might cause the student of evolution to despair of civilization in the New World, and ask himself if good, or evil, is the end of mankind. It is only by recollecting that the country is in a state of development, and that the crimes recorded in every edition of American newspapers are spread over a huge area, among a vast population, that a sense of proportion takes the place of so dismal an obsession.

It is not with any gruesome desire to catalogue iniquity, nor for holding up the American people to condemnation that we shall consider the

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palpable defects in their society, but only for the purpose of fulfilling our task of presenting the varied pages of their life. The great crimes constantly committed throughout the Republic might be classed under the headings of political, financial, and sentimental. Plainer terms will resolve these, however, into two classes—robbery and murder. It might be said that American democracy has inaugurated certain “unwritten laws,” one of which permits the individual to take the law into his own hands, and to constitute himself a tribunal with the executive of the revolver! The other seems to permit the acquisition of your neighbours’ property by any methods in your power. “Get wealth—honestly if you can—but get wealth” might be the axiom of some American Solomon of this century.

The political crimes, and these are the most serious, as they influence the whole body politic, are committed generally by bands of politicians by the method of organized corruption of the voters. Most typical of these political banditti is that known as “Tammany”. The name originally was that of an Indian chief, which had been adopted by a Friendly Society in New York; and its sinister significance grew therefrom. Tammany Hall is a political association which underlies the whole social life of New York; that is of the class among which it operates: whilst its example has been copied by the whole country. As an organization it is exceedingly well equipped and operated, and it has brought the matter of political corruption and stealing of the public funds up to the level of a science.

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Its game is to possess itself of all city official positions; control all the municipal operations, and consequently dispose of the city funds. These funds being at the mercy of the corrupt element are diverted in every possible manner to their own pockets, by means principally of fraudulent contracts of public works and fraudulent payments for work never done. The spoil is divided among all grades of the organization, from the "Bosses"—as the American slang term designates the leaders—down to the humblest henchmen. Indeed it is the rigid observance of "honour among thieves" which keeps the organization together. All classes of citizens form part of the "machine"; city officials, architects, saloon-keepers (a "saloon" is a public bar), policemen, hotel- and restaurant-keepers, tobacconists, clerks and boot-blacks, etc. Funds for the organization are obtained largely by levying upon the salaries of municipal office-holders, and indeed of all those enumerated, and none dare raise a protest against this mulcting. Did he not obtain his position because Tammany was in control; and will he not be "fired out"—that is, ejected or dismissed—if he dare disobey the mandate sent forth from "headquarters"?

It is difficult for the Englishman to grasp the meaning and character of this organization unless he has lived in New York, or other large American city, and has been thrown into contact with the particular class of people among whom it flourishes. A slight inkling of its methods might be obtained from the "Poplar Scandals"; a very mild form of

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Tammanyism which broke out in that part of London recently, but which was quickly suppressed. For Tammany is a growth of democracy; of the control of public funds by the class in which there are no gentlemen, or upper-class influence. The emblem of Tammany in New York is a tiger, and this sinister beast may be thought of as moving through all the labyrinths and avenues of the great Babylon upon the Hudson; amid low beer-stained pot-houses and tapestried Fifth-Avenue mansions; although in the latter his presence is less tolerated. His operations fill columns of the daily papers. The "Bosses" and their "heelers" or "henchmen" are familiar names to the readers, and "graft," "boodle" and "the stuff" are among the most familiar terms of the New York pressman—terms it may be necessary to explain to the foreign reader, which are synonymous with "plunder". So bold indeed has the organization become, that of recent years it has cynically proclaimed its purpose—openly—that it is "out for the stuff".

But, the foreigner may pause and ask, is it possible that ordinary, well-meaning citizens such as New York presumably consists of in bulk, can countenance or take part in such nefarious operations? Are there no authorities which can control this organized thieving? It is unfortunate to have to chronicle the fact, almost unique perhaps in the life of a modern civilized nation, that the very authorities—the police—whose business it should be to protect the public, are mixed up and participate in the spoils of Tammany, in many cases. This is a

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serious statement to make, but it is a matter of common knowledge to the public of New York, and constantly forms the theme of scandalous articles in the city Press. Law-breaking by the police is a serious evil of New York. This takes the form of illegal arrest and extortion, of the mulcting of keepers of houses of ill-fame by individual police, or the protection of these against the law if they consent to the bribe; and connivance at the escape or immunity of criminals, in return for bribes. From time to time some well-meaning police commissioner arises and strives to clean out these Augean stables of corruption in the force. One of the best known of these was the famous ex-President¹ who strove manfully for reform. A short time ago² the Mayor of New York issued a report which was the result of a lengthy investigation into the methods of the city police, denouncing the police administration as "a corporation which systematically violates the law," and demanded the instant dismissal of various high officials, and took the administration of the police temporarily under his own control. This created something of a sensation, but it has taken place too often for its effects to be lasting; the spoils of office are too tempting, and the character of the class of men—with rare exceptions—too much of a level to effect a reform yet.

The Commissioner of Police of New York issued an address following upon that, dealing with crime in the city, politicians and the police and the corrupt

¹ Theodore Roosevelt.

² Vide the Press, 1 July, 1909.

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police system, in which, he stated, that "there are two places in the city, where any crime, from the lowest to the greatest, can be bought for money". He added that he could not touch those places because the city authorities who were Tammany politicians would not allow funds for secret service; the inference being that the politicians did not want the disgrace terminated. Never allow city politicians to run your police force, was the moral of this astounding address.¹

It might be supposed by the foreigner that these corrupt bureaucratic methods would have been hidden from the public eye and kept from the Press. Here, however, comes in a remarkable characteristic of American life—reporters and the Press are no respecters of persons, and the theory of equality, under which the meanest reporter has a right to interview high officials, absolutely prevents secrecy. Also, the desire for sensational news, obeying the commercial element of wanting to make their papers sell, causes newspaper proprietors and pressmen to ferret out each new scandal as soon as its sinister edge may have appeared (and sometimes before!). In Russia (for example), where a great deal of similar corruption to that we are describing is known to exist, the system of class distinction and non-equality renders easy the secreting of abominations, just as in any country of absolute monarchical principles such conditions would obtain. This power of the American Press, therefore, whilst it is objectionable in some respects, is a fortunate one in

¹ As recorded by the London "Daily Telegraph".

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this case. In American cities it is part of the Police Commissioners' daily routine to receive reporters and answer their questions : a cross-examination which appears in the papers, and causes the foreign visitor to marvel at the system. The officials talk with great freedom (as do the reporters), and defend themselves or denounce others, knowing that the public will read it all. During my residence in New York there was in office a very notorious police official with an Irish name—as a matter of fact they, and the ordinary policemen, are nearly always of Irish extraction—who had been freely accused by the Press and his co-officials with some specially corrupt abominations, and his statements in the morning papers formed a theme of general interest. So notorious had he become in his nefarious methods, and, in spite of all protest by the public, so resolutely was he kept in office by the Tammany interests which had placed him there, that he became for months a public theme, and his utterances and the possibility of his dismissal the main news item in the morning papers. He came to be known as the "Unspeakable" Donohue (his name was not Donohue, but it will serve), and the public demand that he should be "fired" grew quite absorbing. But at length he refused to make any statements for publication, and to the reporters' morning question as to whether he had anything to say in reply to the strictures of the previous days' papers, his stereotyped response became "Nothin' doin'"—a slang term among gentlemen of his kidney, meaning that there were no further developments.

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The foregoing is given as being illustrative of the character of the Tammany politician, to some extent. It is a remarkable fact that these people should invariably be drawn from the Irish or Irish-American element. In New York low politics and a Celtic name go hand in hand ; not only in New York, however, for the same element is encountered in Chicago and San Francisco to some degree. All the policemen of New York, it might be said, are of Irish extraction, and whilst physically they are a splendid body of men, who under ordinary conditions do good work against the criminal element (especially those who yield them no levy !), they have been corrupted by the atmosphere of the Republic ; and by the low saloon or pot-house element which forms the headquarters and distributing-points of Tammany. They have degenerated, under present systems, into corrupt bullies, and nothing could be in greater contrast to their simple-minded and courteous confrère of London. To ask any question or information of an American policeman, is almost to lay oneself open to studied rudeness : a fact which has impressed itself upon the notice of many travellers in America. Indeed to the Briton, accustomed to the courteous behaviour of his own public servants, nothing is more objectionable than the "liberty" of American officials, police and others, to affront the public with their methods. It is a singular phase of democracy ; and the power and attitude of the police of America is such as would not be tolerated for a day in Britain, where real civic freedom obtains.

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So marked has the increase of crime in New York become, due both to the veniality of the police and to other social matters, that the leading papers have been drawing serious attention to it. "It is high time for the authorities to provide the Police Department with men and laws adequate to cope with the army of criminals," says one of these.¹

Apart from its criminality, the main point of note about Tammany is its great power of organization. Were the talent and energy it embodies shown in a good cause, much might be accomplished. The low Irish politicians who form its chiefs are men whose native ability as leaders of men have brought them there. They come from the lowest and least educated of any Anglo-Saxon strain, and by sheer force of character make themselves a power in the community; although a power for evil. Nor is it to be supposed that the methods of Tammany are viewed with repugnance always by New York's citizens as a whole. Whilst at election times, for the election to the important post of mayor and city officials generally, the voters are divided into two camps, Tammany and anti-Tammany (the latter making their issue that of political reform), nevertheless there is always a large body of people who believe, or profess to believe, that this is only a cloak for nefarious operations of the latter. During one of these strenuous and frenzied elections, when the "citizen's cause" triumphed, I happened to be in New York. Tammany was demolished all along the line, and a prominent

¹ The "New York Tribune".

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College professor was elected to the mayoralty. This meant that for four years the bosses and their henchmen would be deprived of the spoils of office and compelled to lie low and bide their time; for the intelligent upper class of New York had arisen in their wrath and routed the forces of "graft," at the polls. "What do you think of it?" I asked my landlady, the keeper of the apartment house where I had my rooms. She was an intelligent, good-natured Irishwoman, of a type numerous in New York. "Well," she replied, "it is easy for people to denounce Tammany, but they do at least make money easier among the poor"; adding that her son would now lose his job. The son was a clerk in the City Hall, a post he had obtained, like many other petty office-holders, through belonging to the organization, but the incoming regime proposed to dismiss them all. There was something of truth in the woman's reply. The bitter cry of the New York poor, whose name is legion, more readily finds a hearing in the ears of wicked Tammany than in those of the Trust magnates, the Steel, Oil, Copper or Meat "Kings"! The small tradesman of New York is constantly pressed out of business by the great bulk of the Trusts, and Tammany is generally "anti-Trust".

The Tammany "machine" is one which it has seemed impossible to destroy. The last half-century of New York's history shows that after defeat it does but come back to office with a pendulum swing. Its great power comes by reason of its appeal to the dishonesty of the lower classes.

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During a recent election for the New York Mayoralty and city officers, the sums to be spent on public works were shown to be enormous, and the posts and perquisites corresponded thereto. The cost under Tammany administration of New York, it is stated, has reached an aggregate equal to £40,000,000 annually; and the city debt reaches £160,000,000, requiring an annual interest of £10,000,000. Holding forth from his pulpit, a minister of the famous Metropolitan Temple of New York stated "that Tammany steals £10,000,000 yearly; the greater part of which goes in useless salaries, and filters down through mysterious ways and fraudulent contracts".¹ It was estimated that, had Tammany obtained control—it lost the election of 1909, as far as controlling the city expenditures was concerned—they would have spent the equivalent of £200,000,000. The "machine," having lost an election has to subsist for at least four years until next election without the £40,000,000 for bribery and corruption, and the pot-houses of the politicians and the lair of the sinister tiger generally remains short of the sinews of war.

The lesson of Tammany is not without value for London. The germs of "graft" exist, probably, in the soil of all countries, wherever democratic institutions prevail; and wherever the weed sprouts every good citizen will lend a hand to root it out.

¹ 31 October, 1909.

CHAPTER XV

THE AMERICAN PERIL

Tammany and civilization—Crime in England and America compared—The “white slave traffic”—Appalling conditions—“Vote early and often!”—A millionaire’s tears—The Trusts again—The newspapers and the Trusts—Standard Oil—The Sugar Trust—Dishonest Custom-house officials—British criticism—Presidential thunderings

WELL-WISHERS of America—and chief among them are the British people, allied to the great Republic by sympathies of race and language—cannot fail to see in the element of political corruption a condition of peril for the civilization of the United States. It might be more polite “not to talk about it” perhaps; but, on the other hand, even holding up the mirror is, at times, of service.

The most serious part of the whole business is the wholesale corruption of great masses of the lower class—people of small education, very easily influenced for evil (or for good) by those who wield any kind of power. For, as pointed out before, the bulk of Americans are not a people of strong individuality. They are easily led, easily influenced, and without the more vigorous personal opinions and principle of the Englishman or the Scotchman.

The work and influence of the Tammany class

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is, therefore, of grave meaning to the American people. In these political matters chivalry and honour are dead, and refinement and honesty unknown qualities. Against the organization of Tammany serious charges have always been made; but recently, under the heading of "The Tammanyizing of a Civilization," a leading American magazine¹ gave a terrible indictment of the organization; part of which ran as follows:—

"For fifty years and more this body has perverted civilization in New York, using the great politically untrained population for this purpose. Its political saloon-keepers have killed unnumbered multitudes of these people through excessive drinking; its political procurers have sold the bodies of their daughters; its contractors and street-railway magnates have crowded them into the deadly tenement districts by defrauding them of their rights of cheap and decent transportation; and its sanitary officials have continuously murdered a high percentage of the poor by their sale of the right to continue fatal and filthy conditions in these tenement districts, contrary to law. Meantime they have kept control of the population they have exploited by their cunning distribution of wages and charity. New York and Illinois have together a population under 14,000,000; these two States require 572 judges in their courts. England and Wales have a population of about 32,000,000; over this population there are ninety-two judges of the same general rank as that of the 572 who serve in New York and

¹ "McClure's Magazine," November, 1909.

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Illinois—that is, the two American States have about fourteen times as many judges in proportion to their population as England and Wales.”

Elsewhere it was said: “the exploitation of the untrained population by the political wire-pullers of Tammany Hall has degraded the lower-class elective community along two lines of strong primitive appeal—their saturation with alcoholic liquor, and the development of sexual licence. A police force which has been bribed and corrupted into an unhealthy tolerance of lawlessness adds to the insecurity of life in America.” The most serious charges were those of the so-called “white-slave traffic” and it brought about a storm of corroboration on the one hand and of refutation on the other among the various politicians and the newspapers of the United States. These matters, as has been remarked before, do not cause much surprise to the Englishman who has lived in New York, although they may astonish those who know of America only through the European atmosphere. On this grave matter, however, let us leave the discussion to the American Press. A former police commissioner, who was a staunch and anti-Tammany official, was interviewed by one of the leading papers¹ on the subject, and spoke as follows:—

“I had been head of the police force about two years before I realized that there was anything in the white slave question. I had been inclined before that to think that all the talk about dealing in women was the idle talk of hysterical persons.

¹ “New York Times,” 26 October, 1909.

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That was only one phase of police work, so I delegated it to one of my deputies. The first difficulty we ran up against was getting policemen to do their duty in getting evidence. The police despised the 'cadets,' but when they found that the men they were after all seemed to have strong political influence, money, and friends, they became discouraged. The magnitude of the traffic appalled me. At the beginning of our investigations I supposed that only the immigrant women were dealt in, and it was against the importers of such that our energies were directed for a long time. The records of the United States courts will show many convictions. Scores of women were deported for violation of the immigration laws. But getting evidence against the rascals who brought them here was a herculean task, for practically the only persons who could testify against them were their victims, and these women seldom squeal.¹ On the east side it was found that nearly all the cadets were affiliated with the local and dominant political organization, and that whenever one was arrested he was never at a loss for a bondsman. The more we dug into the thing the more we were convinced of its magnitude. It appeared to extend all over the country, particularly in the large cities. The people who engage in this traffic are organized. What has been said of the existence of the white slave traffic here in the past is true—every word of it."

Another New York paper² published a letter

¹ "Squeal," i.e. complain.

² The "Evening Post," 26 October, 1909.

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from the United States District Attorney, or Public Prosecutor, of Chicago, upon the subject, as follows:—

“ I am glad to comply with your request relating to the white slave traffic, because I am convinced that when the people of the nation really appreciate the true villainy of the system they will not stop until it is completely ended. The investigations and prosecutions conducted by this office during the last eighteen months have disclosed a national and international traffic in the buying, selling, and exportation of young girls for immoral purposes. There are few who really understand the true significance of the term ‘white slave trade’. Most of those who have given only a casual thought to the subject have the impression that women who lead immoral lives in public houses are there voluntarily. In a majority of cases such is not the fact. To-day the inmates of houses of ill-fame are made up largely of women or girls whose original entry into a life of immorality was brought about by men who were in the business of procuring women for that purpose ; men who earn their livelihood and amass a fortune by that means. The characteristic which distinguishes the white slave traffic from immorality in general is that the women who are the victims of the traffic are unwillingly forced to live an immoral life. The term ‘white slave’ includes only those women and girls who are literally slaves, those women who are owned and held as property and chattels, whose lives are lives of involuntary servitude, those who become immoral as the result of

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the efforts of the procurer, and who for a considerable period at least continue immoral because of the devices and power of their owners. In short, the white slave trade may be said to be the business of securing white women and of selling them or of exploiting them for immoral purposes. Its victims are those women and girls who, if given a fair chance, would in all human probability have been good wives and mothers and useful citizens. In practically all of the cases investigated by this office, liquor, trickery, and deceit were used by the procurer to accomplish this purpose and place the girl under his power. In some cases the procurer marries his victim, in others he gains control by promise of legitimate employment with handsome compensation. Hundreds of men in the large cities live from the earnings of their victims, and in many instances the more extensive procurers live in affluence. The books kept by a notorious importer who was arrested by us some months ago disclosed his earnings of the year previous to his arrest—largely from his importation and wholly from his exploitation of girls—to have been more than \$102,000. It is needless to say that the operations of the white slave trader can be carried on only with the connivance or acquiescence of the police. Obviously no woman or girl can be detained in a house of ill-fame for any length of time against her will if the police exercise proper supervision and inspection. In most of the States houses of ill-fame are outlaws. The law forbids their very existence, and they remain only on sufferance. It follows,

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therefore, that if permitted to exist at all, it must be upon such conditions as the police see fit to impose. The police have the power to exterminate the traffic completely."

The letter concludes by saying that the "white slave traffic" has been largely stamped out in Chicago, due to efficient control of the police and immigration departments. The washing of this unpleasant American linen was further undertaken in the city of Omaha, when the chairman of the Baltimore National Vigilance Committee for the Suppression of the White Slave Traffic spoke at the National Women's Christian Temperance Union. It is useful to mention the names of these organizations, in order that the fact may not be lost sight of, that there are numerous good, benevolent societies all over America, always striving to elevate the moral side of the people; and to counteract evil influences. The speaker declared¹ "that traffic in girls had become an evil more widespread than the public imagines, reaching out into every part of this country and even across the ocean for victims. The main line of its operation was from Montreal, Boston and New York westward through Buffalo, Pittsburg, Chicago, Omaha and Denver to San Francisco and Seattle." The Federal Government, he said, was doing all it could to suppress the traffic, but it was hampered by a Supreme Court decision that this was a matter for the police power of the States to deal with. He urged the members of the Women's Christian Temperance Union to influence

¹ "New York Times," 26 October, 1909.

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their State Legislatures to pass more drastic laws on this subject.

The Tammany Tiger was "naturally incensed" at having any share in this iniquity cast at its door, and it formulated its protests in two ways; first, that the "traffic" existed equally, or in a greater degree when the so-called reformers were in power; and second, that the whole thing was a fabrication and a lie, designed to injure them, and that no such traffic existed. The New York paper previously quoted¹ says: "The Tammany nominee for Mayor takes issue with those who defame and slander the city's name, and brands as false the published assertion that Tammany has engaged in white slave traffic. He places blame, if any, on the officials. He says there is a vice, that of graft, which he will suppress if elected. He hits at the muck-rakers"—meaning those who have made the charges of the white slave traffic. Other leading Tammany candidates spoke vehemently against the accusations and offered a large sum to any one who could prove its truth. In justice to the Tammany nominee for Mayor it must be said that he was a man of excellent character and standing; and was put up by the organization in accordance with their policy; which endeavours at times to silence public opinion by the method of having a good man at the head, and so slip into power under this cloak. As for the nominee himself he declared his intention to reform the organization—possibly, as a London paper remarked—on the principle of a virtuous girl who

¹ The "Herald," 25 October, 1909.

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marries a rake with the object of reforming him ! The Tammany nominee, on this occasion, was elected, but the Board of Estimates who control the disposal of the city funds were all elected by the Reform party, so that the Tammany organization has been described as “a machine whose petrol supply has been cut off”.

All kinds of interesting election tricks are practised by the supporters—not only of Tammany but of its rivals and imitators generally—to secure the election of their candidates. The most frequent and successful is that of “stuffing,” or of the “repeaters”. This is simple, and consists of putting in votes in feigned names, and in voting several times by the same person under different names. “Vote early and often” is the sardonic advice tendered on these occasions ! The election papers are huge sheets four feet wide and five long, at times, so numerous are the candidates for the various posts ; and voters are repeatedly exhorted to vote the “straight ticket,” that is, to vote for all the nominees of a given side. This is accomplished by putting a cross at the head of the list. The badge of the Democratic party is a five-pointed star ; that of the Republican is an eagle ; and the illiterate voter who cannot write can easily understand, and put his cross accordingly.

The “graft” and fraud in municipal matters in the United States is not confined to New York : we find its sinister trail all across the Continent, from Chicago and St. Louis to San Francisco, whilst even such cities as Pittsburg, and Philadelphia—the Quaker City, in the land of Penn—do not

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escape it. Earlier in the year 1909, disclosures were made of scandals connected with the taxpayers' money, by public officials of Philadelphia; "equalled only by the corruption brought to light at San Francisco". It was shown that articles of furniture for the State capital building were bought at gigantic prices by a fraudulent system of measuring, and that "chandeliers were filled with lead and charged by the pound". The city officials who carried out these cynical misappropriations, amounting to the equivalent of £1,500,000 sterling, were awarded two years each in a convict prison; and among them was the Superintendent of Public Buildings; the ex-Auditor-General, the ex-State Treasurer, and a prominent contractor. Simultaneously with the New York election, before described, municipal elections were held in other cities, but the forces of reform generally failed. In San Francisco, the "anti-graft" candidates were utterly defeated, due to the work of the Labour Organization. As to Pittsburg, the municipal scandals of 1910 were so serious as to arouse bitter comment all over America; and even to reduce to tears a famous millionaire whose name is closely associated with the city!

We have dwelt at this length and depth upon this phase of American municipal politics, in order to depict one side of the life of these great cities. The bright side of American self-government is a refreshing change from these matters, and will fill us with as much admiration for them as we have felt disgust. There is a lesson, moreover, for the Briton in these matters—a stern lesson, to keep his

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own municipal governments free from politics, as remarked before, and to oppose with all his might the insidious element of "State machinery" and bureaucracy in his private affairs, and to combat the element of "graft" which grows so easily under "democratic" rule. If the insidious "tiger" once reared his head in London it would take much to oust him.

The foreigner will marvel, as we have before reflected, upon the fact that an intelligent people such as those of New York and other cities, can allow themselves to be exploited by corrupt organizations. Possibly it is the indifference which prosperity brings; possibly the lack of public spirit which the American—in comparison with the British—has; and possibly that Tammany, although it takes such heavy toll of the funds of the community, gives, in some respects, efficient municipal services and maintains general order, outwardly.

The realm of municipal politics leads on by easy stages to that of national affairs, and the element of corruption, whilst it is less pronounced, creeps in insidiously even there. The great interests or "Trusts" and commercial combinations, railway cliques and magnates, and other powerful concerns, do not hesitate by means of large sums in money and promises of reward to bribe Senators and Deputies in order that they may support this or that measure, beneficial to the interests of the particular "octopus"—as the American pressman loves to term the "combines"—or who will oppose it if against them. So powerful are these combinations

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that, at times, it is impossible to get measures which are antagonistic to them through the Chambers. From time to time some strenuous voice is heard condemning this or that "Big Interest" when a measure is being discussed—but—after a space, the voice is heard no more, and in some secret place a cheque has changed hands. Alas for Democracy!

During a recent election for the Presidency—November, 1908—the most extraordinary charges were brought up by the Press and politicians against each other. The nation was divided mainly into two parties—the "Democratic" and the "Republican". To foreigners the difference between these two names might seem to be obscure, but the "issue" was principally that for and against the Trusts. The chief newspapers of the Democratic—against Trusts—obtained information and proofs of bribery and corruption which had been carried out with prominent politicians, Senators and Deputies; and impressed thereby, many of their opponents refrained in disgust from voting, it is stated. The particular Trust which was upheld to opprobrium was that institution known as "Standard Oil," the fabulously wealthy and powerful organization at whose head stands one of the famous American millionaires. One of the leading papers of the New England States¹ thus expressed itself, and it was said that it was an expression of general sentiment: "The correspondence published has shown that the Standard Oil is reaching out with the broad and greasy hand of boodle to control the news-

¹ "The Springfield Republican," October, 1908.

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papers, the law-making bodies of the States and the nation, and the judiciary and executive authorities. It is a mighty engine for governmental corruption to the end of placing the people under still greater contribution, to make its chief three hundred times a millionaire, rich and powerful beyond the dreams of avarice. Is it possible that such work can escape the day of reckoning at the hands of an outraged and plundered nation?"¹ The great "octopus," in its own defence, naturally repudiated these insinuations, but the public had formed its own opinion, and the attack was bitter and sustained. "For the last twenty years Standard Oil has been instrumental in deciding every national election" ran part of the indictment made by another prominent Democratic party paper,² giving a list of names of prominent politicians, including several ex-Presidents, to whom, it averred, the great Trust "had contributed liberally to their political needs". The allegations, whilst it is to be recollected that they were made in that bitter spirit of American political controversy which hesitates to besmirch no one, nor to show up to the whole world the stigma upon the country at large, were sufficiently weighty to show their foundation in fact.

Not, however, are the big petroleum sellers the only iniquitous combines. The great Sugar Trust, it was commonly averred, had adopted as its plan "to buy whichever party was in power in each particular State". The sugar magnates had influenced foreign

¹ See page 196.

² "The New York American," October, 1908.

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politics even of the United States, and largely strove to influence tariff law, especially at the time of the acquisitions of Hawaii and of Cuba. Recently the Government took proceedings against the officials of the Sugar Trust for alleged fraudulent operations in the weighing of sugar imports, in which also the custom-house officials were implicated seriously. This was a new departure of "graft".¹

These matters, whilst they are little understood in Britain, have not been lost sight of by the London Press, as shown by the comments of a well-known London daily paper² during the election struggle for President: "All sections of the American people are convinced that, whoever wins, the Trusts will pull the strings"; and: "It is the aid of the majority that the Trusts want and are willing to purchase, with a brazen disregard for the political opinions which that majority happens to profess. Every American knows that these organizations can dictate the law, make Presidents or unmake them, defy justice, and ruin their rivals in business. Remedy against these misdeeds under present conditions the citizen has none. Not one single Trust magnate of any importance has ever been punished or imprisoned, but when matters come to a head and the exasperation of public feeling demands some action a fine is imposed, which, however, is never finally exacted. Such is the manner in which the game of finance and business is played in this Trust-ridden community." It is not to be supposed that these

¹ *Vide* the Press, November, 1909.

² "The London Daily Mail," 28 October, 1908.

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matters are recorded from any ill-natured motive ; the truth must appear. And, moreover, it is a matter of common knowledge that this great malady in the body politic of the United States was the theme upon which a recent famous President largely formed his policy and launched his anathemas.¹ Yet this same strenuous voice equally denounced the denouncers ; and the Democrat proprietor of the paper before mentioned² was characterized as "an insincere, self-seeking demagogue" whose "reckless utterance had appealed to the dark and evil spirits of malice and greed, envy and sullen hatred, which were responsible for the murder of President McKinley. The wind is sowed by men who preach such doctrines, and they cannot escape their share of the responsibility for the whirlwind that is reaped. This applies alike to the deliberate demagogue, to the exploiter of sensationalism, and to the crude and foolish visionary who for whatever reason apologizes for crime or excites aimless discontent." So ran the denunciation of this strenuous President, as cabled over to Britain.

The goddess of Democracy must surely be shedding tears, as she looks down upon that broad country Farthest West.

¹ President Roosevelt.

² "The New York American."

CHAPTER XVI

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Robbery with violence—The science of “holding up”—Franchise fights—The modern highwaymen—Cold-blooded crime—Train-wreckers—Dynamite and audacity—Influence in Mexico—The “art” of bank-robbery—Hands up!—The “unwritten law”—Burlesque justice—Cowardice of criminals—Outraged honour and excuse—Bloody vendettas—Mob law and lynching—Burning of negroes—Inherent fiendishness—Women lynchers—Spanish-America compared—Reversion to type of the Americans

IF the political and financial wrongdoing in America, which we have considered in the foregoing chapters, is brought about by the inordinate desire to acquire sudden wealth, or to increase wealth, no less are the serious crimes of robbery with violence and murder induced by the same ruthless spirit; the perversion of the laws of “mine and thine” which has become so marked a feature of American civilization.

Robbery with violence in the United States generally takes one of two forms: the armed robbery of banks, and the “holding up” of trains. These outrages are perpetrated often by gangs of desperadoes, after the manner of the “Jesse James” gang of old, whose name is known to most readers of American history. Scarcely a day passes in

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which the newspapers, in the United States, do not chronicle some occurrence of the above nature, which are, indeed, so common as to excite little interest except in their immediate vicinity, and even there they are rapidly forgotten. The principal scene of this kind of crime is, naturally, in the less advanced parts of the Republic—the Southwest and Western States. Whilst, however, Arkansas, Texas, Arizona, New Mexico, California, and others have become notorious in this respect, these matters are not by any means confined to these frontier territories, but occur at times in New England, even in New York State. In Chicago, a few years ago, an outbreak of such happenings took place, and armed, masked men held up street cars in broad daylight, and even stopped and rifled the United States mail van in the streets of the city, with all the “picturesque” incident generally attending these matters. Public indignation, however, was not very acute, as it had been exhausted by the occurrence of a few days previous, when an illegal and arbitrary “steal” or perversion of the ownership and shares of the Street Car Company had been “engineered” by an enterprising group of bribed city officials and capitalists. Occasionally, pitched battles occur between the forces of a Street Car Company and those of a Municipality,¹ when the former, as sometimes happens, endeavours to lay down rails upon a street upon which the latter maintain that no franchise or right of construction existed; and some blood may be shed before the

¹ Such as witnessed by the author.

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matter is settled. On one occasion surveyors were obliged to exchange the theodolite for the revolver, whilst picks and bars did duty as lethal weapons. These contentions as to franchise are not of infrequent occurrence, and are only a detail of the strenuous life of American cities, just as the murderous strikes are, at times.

To return, however, to the more "picturesque" matter of train robbery. Imagine yourself comfortably journeying along in your pullman-car over some wild desert region of the American West. Your eyes are weary with the everlasting sand and sage-brush areas and the stony foot-hills, among which the locomotive pants and groans with its following train of cars. But at last these give place to smiling valleys and refreshing forests, and the plantations and habitations of man. Suddenly the train comes to a halt; possibly there is the report of a gun, and before they know what is happening the passengers are confronted with the muzzle of a revolver, held by an individual at the door of the car, who commands "hands up". The audacious bandit continues to "cover" the passengers with the menacing weapon, whilst an accomplice goes along the car with a bag, requesting the passengers to "dig up"—that is, to hand over their money and valuables. Taken by surprise, there is rarely any resistance offered by the passengers; whilst, as to the train men, they are also under supervision outside, and can do little for the moment. The methods of these modern highwaymen are characterized by all the audacity of those enterprising

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“road agents” who, in the Middle Ages, worked their will with the stage-coach passengers on the lonely British road. They are crimes, however, of much greater magnitude, for the American train-robber, with a cold-blooded and fiendish indifference to human life, does not hesitate to destroy a bridge and throw a train into a river, or blow it up with dynamite, in order to obtain the valuables contained in the “express car”. The audacity is increased, at times, by the almost incredible fact that the robber works single-handed.

The following account shows an instance of this form of strenuous twentieth-century crime in the New World. “A masked highwayman succeeded in the early hours of this morning in stopping and robbing a Pittsburg express train on the Pennsylvania line. Unaided by confederates, the man, while all the passengers were asleep in their berths, stopped the train by means of dynamite, which shattered the engine-cab windows. He then climbed to the cab, pointed a revolver at the driver and stoker, shot the guard in the arm, and held twenty officials at bay while he proceeded to the mail van, where he applied a second charge of dynamite to the safe. The door flew open, and in obedience to the robber the railway employees carried the mail-bags and deposited them carefully beside the lines. Meanwhile, consternation reigned among the passengers, who were awakened by the shots. Acting with the utmost deliberation, the robber, as soon as his orders were obeyed, alighted, and with his pistol motioned the officials to rejoin

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the train and proceed on their journey. Then he disappeared in the forest. The train, consisting of two engines, three day and two sleeping coaches, rushed at high speed to Tyrone, where a body of armed detectives was sent in pursuit. The scene of the robbery was admirably chosen. Occurring as it did in one of the most thickly populated States in the Union, it has created a great stir. No trace has yet been obtained of the highwayman, though the pursuit forced him to abandon a bag of bullion containing £1000, which has been recovered.”¹

The foreigner, whilst denouncing the crime, will scarcely withhold, on the one hand, some sense of admiration for such single-handed audacity, and, on the other, some astonishment that a whole band of train men, who themselves are often armed, should have been so easily cowed. The success of that particular outrage incited the criminal instincts of other robbers in the neighbourhood, which, it is to be observed, was not part of the “wild and woolly West,” as a “strenuous” nomenclature terms the States of Texas, Arizona, or California, and others, but was near Pittsburg, the great manufacturing centre of the State of Pennsylvania, and the most thickly populated part of the Republic. “A few days afterwards the miscreants loosened and removed a rail, on a long stretch of line over which the express train from New York to Chicago travels. At this place the train, which is known as the ‘Royal Blue Express,’ generally reaches a speed of fifty miles an hour, upon a downward gradient.

¹ *Vide* the Press, 1 September, 1909.

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Approaching the spot, the train, travelling with great velocity in the early morning, was hurled from the track, the locomotive and front carriages became a wreck; whilst the driver and another official were killed on the spot, and twenty passengers injured. The wreckage became ignited, and so complete was the wreck that the robbers were frightened and made away."

The land of Penn, indeed, has become somewhat of a favourite region for this kind of outrage, doubtless due to the fact that quantities of bullion and other valuables are carried from one city to another of the great manufacturing districts. Thus, earlier in the year, 1909, the Press informed us that "a daring robbery was committed yesterday on the Pennsylvania Railroad, at a spot not many miles from this city, when two masked robbers held up a fast express train and decamped with \$10,000 (£2000). After holding up the train one of the robbers, both of whom were well armed, kept watch over the officials and passengers, while the other entered the express van and overpowered the man in charge. After securing the money the two miscreants made good their escape into some dense woods, which at this spot border the railway, and no trace of them has since been discovered."

In point of fact these train robberies occur with such frequency that their descriptions in the daily papers in America are recounted with a certain amount of monotony, and almost cease to excite notice. In the Western States, beyond the Rocky Mountains, they are much more frequent, whilst

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the invading American "civilization" into Mexico has carried the methods of the Anglo-Saxon bandit even into that Republic, although these depredations are of far less frequent occurrence there than in the United States. Following is a brief account telegraphed to the London Press recently, giving an insight into the "picturesque" features of railway travel into this part of the American West. "A particularly daring train robbery was committed yesterday on the Mexican National Railroad. An express train, which was travelling towards Mexico City, was held up by a band of masked and heavily armed robbers, who at once boarded a car in which a special messenger in the employ of the Wells Fargo Express Company was travelling. They covered the messenger with their revolvers, and compelled him to give up a package containing money and jewellery to the value of \$73,000 (£14,600), afterwards escaping across the prairie on ponies." On one of my own journeys in Mexico the train was "held up," but so bunglingly was it done, by Mexicans who had not learned the exact methods of their Anglo-Saxon Confrères, that the affair was a failure—from their point of view!

After the "science" of train robbery, in the United States, the gentle "art" of bank robbery is that which most greatly appeals to the individual who is resolved to "get-rich-quick" by fair means or foul. Possibly he finds financial operations of fraudulent company-forming too cumbersome and slow on the one hand, and the holding up of trains too hazardous on the other! The methods of the

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bank bandit are simple, but often effective. They consist of entering the bank and "covering" the cashier or other officials with a loaded revolver, and requesting him to hand out, under pain of being shot, the contents of the till. These banking operations are of such common occurrence that they scarcely excite more note than that of a paragraph in the daily papers. They are not confined to small country banks in the wilder States, but are carried out in the capital cities frequently. Here, for example, is an account of an exceedingly "up-to-date" forced loan of this nature, including the accessories of a motor-car.

"Highland Park, a fashionable suburb in Chicago, was the scene yesterday of a remarkable bank robbery. Shortly before the closing hour two men in a large motor-car stopped before the banking establishment of the Erskine Company. One of them, imposingly dressed in a fur overcoat, approached the cashier and, whipping out two revolvers, ordered: 'Everybody hands up!' The robber then forced the whole of the staff to enter a wired-in partition, where the cashier works. After locking them in this 'cage' he swept the counter clear of some hundreds of pounds, and walked backwards to the door, exclaiming: 'If one of you makes the slightest noise before the car has started I shall come back and blow your brains out!' But the bandits' motor-car came to a sudden stop two streets away. The police arrived, and a fusillade began. The chauffeur surrendered, but his companion, after shooting a policeman dead, made off,

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furiously pursued by the police and a large crowd. Driven to bay on a railway line, he shot himself dead.”¹

It would be easy to multiply instances of this form of crime, but it would be tedious. At the bottom of all these depredations, as we have remarked before, is the inordinate desire to have money; a desire which the exigencies and conditions of American life has aroused in a way such as has never been witnessed before.

Leaving these crimes which have robbery as their motive, we have now to notice those which come in the category of “sentimental,” and whose principal object is homicide. No occurrences of American life have been more prominently put before the world recently than the series of crimes in the defence of which the “unwritten law” has been invoked. The conditions attending this phase of New World civilization have stood out so strongly as almost to startle the observer, accustomed to European life and its respect for the law. The amount of licence, adultery, divorce, and misbehaviour which are shown to exist among the Americans is much against preconceived ideas regarding a cold-blooded people like the Americans, inhabiting a northern land; a people, moreover, of British characteristics and traditions. The prevalence of the habit of carrying a revolver among Americans is strong; whilst their acute jealousy and acts of terrible revenge are such as we are accustomed to apply to the Corsican or the

¹ *Vide* the Press, 14 October, 1909.

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Mexican, rather than to the Anglo-American. When an American suspects another of having dishonoured him he forthwith takes his revolver, way-lays and shoots down the offender in cold blood. The victim may or may not be culpable, although doubtless generally he is. A feature of the almost burlesque trials resulting upon some of these cases, has been the calling of so-called mental "experts". These have sometimes been bribed, or their self-conceit aroused, to advance theories about "brain-storm" and other cryptic matters. The prisoner, in most cases, does not manfully take the onus of his act upon himself and manifest his willingness to abide by the consequences, but resorts to every legal device possible to escape punishment,¹ in what, to an "old-fashioned" murderer, would seem arrant cowardice! Only to live, only to enjoy life again after his wicked act, has seemed to be the sole and piteous aim of some of these modern homicides. Repentance, never. The "unwritten law" is hardly likely to be defended by jurists. A doctrine which assumes that any person may constitute himself judge and executioner for an injury, real or fancied, can hardly hold sway with a civilized people, and doubtless it is only a passing phase of American life. On the other hand, it is difficult to argue clearly where honour, on so dear a subject, is concerned; and a terrible warning is conveyed to those who wilfully trifle with the honour and happiness of others. It might be said, however, that it is less the actual crimes, than the extraordinary

¹ Such as exemplified in a recent famous case and others.

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legal defensive measures which have arrested the attention of the civilized world in this phase of American life ; and we of old Europe, having ever before our minds the hope of some regeneration of society, can only turn away regretfully from these occurrences in the New World.

Another phase of sentimental or revengeful crime, in the United States, is that shown by the private feuds, or murderous vendettas, which continually attract the attention of the American newspaper reader by their accounts. These are relatively common, and occur generally in the Southern States. They partake of the nature of that remorseless vengeance which, as before remarked, we are accustomed to associate with the Latin race rather than the Anglo-Saxon. Kentucky, Tennessee, Virginia, and other States of that region, are those where these border feuds, or family vendettas, take place ; and they are generally of a resolute and bloodthirsty nature, handed on sometimes from father to son, often, moreover, arising from causes comparatively trivial. Whole families are wiped out at times, men and women ; the revolver and the shot gun being the weapons employed, rather than the dagger. Typical of these affairs is the following, which will suffice as showing the easy sacrifice of human life in these places when personal matters are involved. "The tale of one of the border fights of West Virginia and Kentucky has ended in a tragic chapter, in the death of the mother, husband, and daughter of one of the families concerned, living on Kentucky side. A Virginian

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neighbour, with whom a feud had long existed, crossed over into Kentucky on business three weeks before, and was sought out and shot by the son of the Kentucky family, who, incidentally, was his brother-in-law. The Virginian obtained a warrant for the arrest of the murderer, and his brother, and a posse of sheriff's men, proceeded to the Kentucky homestead to execute it. As they approached, fire was opened upon them with revolvers by the mother, who was shot by the officers. But the daughter, snatching the revolver from her mother's hands as she fell, turned it upon the police, and in her turn was shot, three bullets piercing her heart from the sheriff's weapons. The father and uncle were enabled to escape, however, due to this opposition."¹ Feuds of this nature are of constant occurrence in the South, and well depict the qualities of ruthlessness and jealousy, as well as the bravery and devotion which underlie the actions of the hot-blooded people of that region.

These personal feuds and homicides, serious as they are, are less serious, perhaps, than the appalling matters of lynching and mob law in America which at times startle the civilized world. These occur principally in the Western and Southern States, and are so common as scarcely to excite more than passing notice in the American papers. Indeed they have been cabled over in "picturesque" form by correspondents of London papers so frequently that in England people are almost accustomed to them; although the sense of horror they convey never

¹ *Vide* the Press, 27 November, 1909.

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wears off, nor is likely to, among a humane and law-abiding people. The savage acts of mobs, sometimes the result of the delay of justice, but not excusable thereby, show a spirit of almost incredible ferocity, such as we are accustomed to associate only with Oriental peoples, and not with a Western nation. The burning of negroes at the stake is among the commoner forms of these, and "negro roasted alive" in Texas, Tennessee, Missouri, or other Western States is a frequent paragraph-heading seen upon opening our morning paper in America. But it would be hypocritical to pretend that these lynchings are brought about only by a righteous indignation at the law's delay, or desire for punishment of adulterers and murderers of dark (or white) skin. There is something of a lust for blood in the people, akin to that of the Spaniard for the bull-fight. The shrieks of a burning negro seem to carry some awful fascination for them; and to "riddle" his body whilst, as an alternative, he swings by the neck from tree or telegraph pole, seems to carry with it some frightful sense of satisfaction to the mob. As we have reflected elsewhere, there must be *something in the soil* of the New World, which strives to bring about a reversion to a former type in the United States; and possibly this is the influence of the primitive savage Indians, who tortured their enemies with fiendish ingenuity, asserting itself in the American character to-day. It is a remarkable fact that these awful crimes of reprisal do not break out in Spanish-America, notwithstanding the cruelty we are ac-

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customed to associate with the name of the Spaniard; and in Mexico or Peru we do not hear of such things. Is this due, possibly, to the fact that the early peoples of these countries, the Aztecs and Incas, did not generally perform this torturing of their enemies, and that the soil is consequently not saturated with this "microbe" of ferocious cruelty? It is true that the Spanish Inquisition (of abominable memory) burnt and tortured their heretics, and that the Aztecs offered up human sacrifices, but this was scarcely performed in a spirit of ferocious revenge or bloodthirsty mania, like the American lynchings. Following is a typical account of one of these occurrences transmitted by Reuter's agency to the London Press. The first paragraph is from one of the most conservative and respectable of English periodicals;¹ the second is of more lurid character, in conformity with the more sensational style of the halfpenny journal which published it.²

"Mob law in the United States. Will James, a negro who was charged with a serious offence in regard to a girl shop-assistant, was lynched by the mob at Cairo (Illinois) yesterday evening. An attempt was first made to hang the man, but the rope broke. His body was then riddled with bullets and afterwards dragged a distance of a mile and thrown into a fire, where it was burned to a cinder. A report having been circulated that James had confessed to the crime and admitted that he had had

¹ "The Morning Post," 13 November, 1909.

² "The Daily Mail," of same date.

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an accomplice of the name of Alexander, the infuriated townspeople set out for the jail to seize the man, but being unable to find him they started to batter down a steel cage in which a white photographer named Henry Salzner, who was charged with murdering his wife with an axe, was confined. For an hour the mob tore and hammered at the cage, Salzner meanwhile pleading piteously for mercy and protesting his innocence. At last the stout bars gave way, and the prisoner was dragged to one of the main streets, where he was hanged on a telegraph pole. A volley was then poured into his body. The Governor has ordered eleven companies of militia to proceed to Cairo to restore order. The local Sheriff kept James hidden in the woods for two days in the hope of saving him from the vengeance of the townspeople."

"Women Lynchers. Amazing riots have broken out at Cairo, Illinois, where a mob of 10,000 people, led by women, last evening lynched a negro named Will James, the murderer of a white girl, and also a white man, Henry Salzner, a photographer by trade, who was accused of murdering his wife with an axe. Salzner was found in the prison when the mob was seeking for another negro, and was hanged as a protest against the delays of justice. James was riddled with 500 bullets and his body was burned in the principal street in the city. A woman's hand set light to the pile. Before the burning, the heart of the negro was cut up and the pieces distributed among the mob as souvenirs, while the ropes with which the murderer had been

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bound were dipped in his blood, torn in strips, and pocketed by men and women. Eight hundred troops are now guarding the city, which is under martial law. After James's body was burnt the mob, including the women, scoured the town for Alexander, his alleged accomplice. They set out for the jail to seize him, but being unable to find him they started to batter down a steel cage in which Salzner was confined. For an hour the mob tore and hammered at the cage, Salzner meanwhile pleading piteously for mercy and protesting his innocence. At last the stout bars gave way, and the prisoner was dragged to one of the main streets where he was hanged on a telegraph pole. A volley was then poured into his body. Salzner's body was left in the street and claimed by his father early in the day. Before hanging Salzner the mob at first refused to allow him to pray, but the cooler heads prevailed and allowed him a few moments' respite. Fifteen hundred men subsequently were searching the river front and breaking in the freight cars in the hope of finding Alexander. Alexander was spirited out of the town in policeman's clothes and safely lodged in the county jail by the sheriff's officers, after having been hidden for several hours."

Whilst it is true, as has been said, that the Spanish-American peoples, neighbours of the United States, do not practise these awful lynchings, nevertheless it is not to be supposed that they are free from ferocious cruelty in their life. The torturing of prisoners which takes place in prisons

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at the bidding of presidents, governors, or generals of Latin-American Republics; the secret executions and political murders; and the abominable "law of escape," under which prisoners whom it is desired to get rid of are tempted to attempt an escape and then shot down in cold blood, are such as could never occur in the Anglo-Saxon Republic, where, at least, murder is done in the open. Spanish-American countries—Mexico, Colombia, Venezuela, Chili, and others—are dotted with crosses on lonely hillsides, where political prisoners have been stood up and shot in cold blood; and the methods of victorious Spanish-American soldiers, whether revolutionary or governmental, are, in some cases, worthy of bands of bloodthirsty savages rather than civilized beings. The United States, at least, are free from these frequent political murders which disgrace Central and South America; nor would Americans butcher wounded soldiers on the battlefield, such as has taken place in recent Spanish-American history. Indeed, when we observe the general law-abiding and peaceful aspect of American cities, and the often good-natured and humane character of their citizens, it seems incredible that acts could break out at a moment's notice among them, such as those we have regretfully chronicled.

It has been asserted of late that the American, as concerns his physiognomy, is reverting to the type of the Indian; perhaps it would be equally easy to show that, in his customs, he is also reverting to the methods of savage tribesmen!

CHAPTER XVII

AMERICAN NEWSPAPERS, HUMOUR, AND PIES

Characteristic American periodicals—Appalling materialism—
Huge papers—Sunday papers—The Church denounces them
—“Decadence” of religion—English papers compared—
American literature—Rubbishing English novels—American
humour—The “pie” joke—The American pie—The “great
pie belt”—The English pie compared—Spheres of pie in-
fluence—The coloured man joke—The politicians in carica-
ture—Uncle Sam as monitor—The humour of incongruity—
Topographical jokes

THE American newspapers, like other matters in the United States, are unlike anything else in the world; and if that be a compliment none will withhold it. These papers are the expression of a people in the making, is the first fact that will be impressed upon us. They reflect the passions, crimes, loves, ambitions, energies, virtues, of the mass of humanity from whose bosom they spring daily, in a way no other country's Press performs. The most fundamental difference we shall note between the American and the English papers is, that the latter strive to direct public opinion, whilst the former reflect it. The daily cry of the London and British Press is that of a monitor, calling on the people to their tasks and thoughts; that of the American seems rather the dismal plaint of yesterday: the groaning

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of a nation in tormentuous composition—raw, blatant, pathetic, indecent ; lying, in one column, piteously striving to tear away a veil from truth with the cat-like claws of a not fully evolved humanity, in the other. In these papers you can see the steam and smoke of lurid factories ; you can taste the peculiar flavour of divorce or crime ; and, if you are a foreigner, you are appalled—and it never wears off—by the weight of materialism they convey, where virtue and purity are depicted ever as with a note of interrogation. At times, nauseated and depressed, your spirit weighed down by this great voice of a material humanity, an infinite feeling of pity springs into your being, almost a tear in your eye, and a prayer frames itself in your mind as if you would murmur towards the heavens, “Have mercy upon them !”

This is not a passing fantasy of the mind ; but the result of years of thought about the American people, and of reading of their papers ; and in the former chapters of this book we shall have gathered some sense of what it is meant to convey.

Let us further contrast the British and American Press, by asking who are the daily “heroes” of both. The British heroes, that is those who principally occupy the columns of the country’s papers, are principally statesmen, proconsuls, and eminent men generally—heroes unpaid and politically clean ; and all others are secondary to them. Not so with the American. Statesmen, authors, scientists, occupy a relatively small part of their columns. Business men and their doings predominate, and

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famous railway kings or trust magnates, followed by (or including !) evil-doers, both men and women, whether in the world of finance or pleasure. The type of unconscious national hero varies very greatly in the two communities.

But these American newspapers, especially the Sunday editions, are marvels of ingenuity in every form. First of all is their size. The Sunday edition of the premier journals is rarely less than 100 pages. Let us take at random a copy of the "New York Herald," Sunday edition. We must recollect, first, that the American Sunday paper has a hold upon the people unknown in England, where Sunday papers are looked at askance. A high-class English Sunday paper, indeed, has hardly come into being so far; and some of those which exist appear to devote their columns largely to a list of the week's murders and divorce cases. We shall not forget this in criticizing the Sunday periodicals of the United States. The "Herald" is probably America's premier paper; but there are other journals in New York which may lay equal claim to this position; and, indeed, honours are at times divided. But the "Herald" is that which comes most prominently before British readers, and is that which an Englishman will probably buy first when he enters the country, although, later, he will find others which accord more with English ideas. One of the other leading papers takes as its motto "All the news that's fit to print!" This is the "New York Times". The circulation of these Sunday papers must be very considerable. Probably few

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families or individuals deny themselves this great entertaining weekly record, wherewith to pass their morning: setting forth all their country's doings, and something of the world beyond, together with the enormous quantity of small personal advertisements, which are one of the most remarkable features of these giant periodicals. Indeed, from one point of view, these papers must be looked upon as educative, and when, as doubtless will be the case, a growing refinement among the people causes the elimination of the slangy, sensational, and pernicious parts, as well as of the sheer rubbish of comic illustrations with which they are loaded, they will increase their useful influence. The great objection to these Sunday papers, from the point of view of the thoughtful observer, is that they largely destroy the Sabbath as a day of rest from commercial matters. It is not necessarily a "puritan" spirit which would protest against this, for sheer common sense alone would suggest a rest from the eternal daily warfare; and the inability of Sunday papers to take hold of the British public must be looked upon as a fortunate circumstance, and one which reflects a fortunate trait in the British character. The "dapper-eel" American, whom we have fancifully—no offence whatever intended—pictured with his nose to the surface of his "business pond," should endeavour to cease wriggling for one day in seven, and it might be to his benefit in many ways.

The Church in America, at times, denounces the Sunday papers; and, in order that this criticism

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may not seem unwarranted, it will be well to quote from a sermon delivered by the minister of one of New York's places of worship. This appears in a leading American paper of recent date,¹ and is headed: "Pastor in fight on Sunday Papers; asks his congregation not to read them; calls it desecration; declares publications turn the Lord's Day into one of great commercialism for advertisers". The pastor speaks as follows:—

"First, the Sunday newspaper is unnecessary; second, it is a clear and defiant invasion of the religious principle that underlies the observance of the Sabbath; third, it is an invasion of the secular principle underlying this observance; fourth, it is a dreadful invasion of the Christian's home life on the Sabbath; and, fifth, it invades the sanctum sanctorum of one's conscience. How many of you have read the Sunday newspapers this morning? It is not my business to raise an issue with the owners of these newspapers, but it is my duty to warn my people against reading them. The publication of newspapers on Sunday dates from the Civil War, when the 'New York Herald' and the 'Alta California' began to publish Sunday editions containing news from the battle-fields. The practice of publishing these extra editions grew, and soon most newspapers had their Sunday issues. Every town of any importance in the United States now has its Sunday papers, but in none of these towns is there any necessity for their publication. The purpose of the day which the Lord set apart for Himself is

¹ "New York Herald."

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to shut ourselves out from the world and give the soul a chance. The Sunday newspapers bring in the world. Business men in their daily lives have little time to think of life and immortality. They should consecrate Sunday to that purpose. Yet the Sunday newspaper brings in the stock-ticker and politics. The issue in this matter of Sabbath spending is clearly an issue between what God wants and what the Sunday newspaper wants.

“There are between one and two thousand persons engaged in preparing Sunday newspapers in New York City. These persons say that it is not the Sunday but the Monday newspaper that causes the Sunday work. What do they take us for, that we should believe such a statement? I am credibly informed that before the ‘New York Tribune’ began to issue a Sunday edition Sunday work was never allowed in its offices. The doors were closed at twelve o’clock on Saturday night and remained closed until twelve o’clock Sunday night. If there were no Sunday newspapers now the work done until late Saturday night would serve instead of that done on Sunday. Not only do the pressmen and the printers and the editorial writers work on Sunday but the Sunday newspaper makes Sunday a day of commerce for others. The Christian business man may go home to his Sunday rest, but if he has an advertisement in the Sunday newspaper his goods are being discussed all over the city and his trade is doing its best day’s business of the week. I preached upon this subject sixteen years ago, but since that time a considerable number of persons

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have got a new Bible, not the Bible of truth ; and with it a new theology, the result being a change in the code of morals. The Church of Christ is not failing, but it is clear that many are leaving the narrow path, the first mark of this decadence being the failure to honour the Sabbath. I do not agree with those persons who say that the Sunday newspaper is an educative force. I call on all Christian people to discountenance this flagrant violation of the Lord's Day by refusing to read the Sunday newspaper."

I have given the foregoing extract as throwing an interesting light, for British readers, upon the matter of Sunday observance in the United States, and as showing how similar are some of the religious and social problems with which the public monitors have to deal on both sides of the Atlantic. The "decadence" of religion is lamented everywhere ; but the thoughtful observer, who pins his faith to no one dogma or code, will ask himself if "decadence" is not sometimes confounded with natural evolution and inevitable change. But to pursue this train of thought would take us beyond the scope of this book.

The great American journals are found in all cities across the Continent, on the Atlantic slope, in the Mississippi Valley or the region of the Great Lakes, to the Pacific Slope—all more or less similar in their character, when viewed with foreign eyes, and all reflecting the American spirit of push, energy, and enterprise, and marked with the strong tinge of materialism, which to the foreigner is their



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depressing feature, as before observed. They wield considerable power often. One of America's millionaires boasts a "chain" of great journals right across the Continent; and these hurl forth denunciations at election times upon the political party opposed to that which its proprietor supports; its sycophant journalists driving their numerous quills at his bidding. But fortunately, interests clash greatly, and—after the manner of comets feeding a sun—a certain equilibrium or non-monopoly of the Press generally is maintained. We are not without conditions of this nature in England, although of less degree. We have a halfpenny journal which also nods its daily head at the palpable bidding of its proprietor, and somewhat ruthlessly attacks opposing views, measures, and matters in a way which, from time to time, inevitably alienates its readers. Fortunately, it has adopted a strong "Imperial" policy, which reflects the British people's sentiment, but it has apparently adopted the ugly American method of chopping up its pages with advertisements, often foolish and jarring, which detracts from its value; as does the diurnal portion of murder and adultery—"to be continued in our next,"—doubtless benefiting its treasury. How far this style of "American" journalism is likely to invade the English Press generally it is impossible to say, but the staid, solid, thoughtful (sometimes ponderous), and generally fair-minded British journals of high class seem to pursue their way unchanged.

We shall scarcely dare to trespass into the great

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field of criticism of America's literature here. American writers have provided the Anglo-Saxon world with many beautiful things, for which the English people are not ungrateful. The Americans are great readers, whether of books or newspapers, and it has even been asserted that they are greater book-lovers than the British, or, at least, that they buy books more readily. Possibly they have more money to spare! In England there is a large class of people, lovers of refined literature, who are poor. As to the purely modern books of fiction, and magazine stories, in America, it cannot be said that these appeal much to English readers. They seem, often, strained or trivial, as if their background or "atmosphere" were being made too much of. Probably it is not the fault of the writers, but the lack of "background" which, to English eyes, sometimes gives rise to a prosaic mediocrity; and out of it it must be very difficult for Americans to escape—whether in fact or fiction—from the very reason of their environment. There is no leisure class in America, nor "landed gentry," nor sport-loving people such as Britain has, which produces "heroes". The contrasts of light and shade between the classes is lacking, such as the social systems of Europe afford. The "mid-Victorian" spirit of reverence, piety, idealism, semi-superstition, old-fashioned personal honour, and romantic love, such as produced the enduring novel writers of Britain, is lacking. Men do not pine away, in America, because they cannot pay twenty shillings in the pound when they become bankrupt; nor

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heroically resolve to devote the remainder of their lives to paying off the balance. Far from it. Nor do women in love sacrifice themselves upon the altar of friendship and make themselves miserable for life to render some one else happy. They do not do these things in America, and—but perish the thought—an awful suspicion creeps upon us that even the mid-Edwardian people did not do these things! Probably that beautiful period is past, and the Anglo-Saxon world is in a state of transition as regards its fiction, towards—let us hope—some new and equally beautiful literature. For, as to much of the modern British fiction—oh shades of love, duty, and godliness!—what are these myriad silly volumes on the shelves of the legion of lending libraries throughout this narrow kingdom? What for are these scrappy tales of imaginary murder and adultery in our home-penetrating halfpenny newspapers? What Englishman, reverencing the beauty of his land and times, has not turned away nauseated from the shelves of modern fiction, where he has sought something for young wife or daughter's mind? Perhaps he has thrown the halfpenny journal's serial rubbish to the devil—whence it must have come to pollute his home! Good fiction we must have. Even the philosopher rests his mind with the reading of created episodes of love and adventure, but must the breath of heaven always be absent? This is not necessarily a puritan wail. Take for yourself any dozen of our six-shilling novels, and judge. America and England are both being weighed in the

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balance at this period of Anglo-Saxon life and literature; both as to their books and their cheap newspapers.

To turn for a moment to American humour. This cannot be said to offer many subtleties, or so it would seem to the foreigner, and even a Scotchman might be expected easily to fathom the jokes in the American comic papers. We shall observe that certain phases of life are constantly recurring in these comic periodicals. Perhaps the most constant is what may be termed the "pie" joke. The pie joke is generally accompanied by a picture representing, for example, a tattered tramp calling at a farm house for food, and receiving a portion of a pie—invariable accompaniment of every farm-house meal in the country districts—and with tears in his eyes is protesting its delicious flavour, averring that it is "like the pies that mother used to make". This stock reminiscence is supposed to open the fount of human kindness, by its subtle flattery, of the lady of the house, who thereupon brings out further store of food, or even provides money and a night's lodging. The pie may or may not have been of indifferent quality: sometimes the recipient is depicted surreptitiously throwing it away or groaning in bodily pain after its consumption. It is remarkable to how wide a variety of scenes and incidents the "pie joke" lends itself.

The American pie, it must be explained, differs greatly from its Early English progenitor. It has a bottom instead of a top crust, and is shallow and filled in with minced fruit, apples or pumpkins

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generally ; and although it is an acceptable article of diet, it does not appeal to the Englishman as does that of his own land. Possibly it is of Scotch origin ; but in any case it has been described as “part of the American Constitution” and so must be handled with due respect. The “great pie-belt,” it might be added, is no longer confined to the New England States, but stretches across to California, and has even invaded Canada. Southwards it extends to the borders of Mexico, but comes to a sharply defined edge on the frontier of that Spanish-American Republic, save that it may be said to occupy a narrow strip down the main line railways to the city of Mexico, within the immediate zone of influence of the American tourists and trainmen. I retain kind regard for the American pie, although I did ungratefully, on one occasion, attempt to arrest the enlargement of its sphere of influence. It was as follows : pray pardon the digression, kind reader. It was in California ; that land of mountains, gold, fruit, and flowers—and I was camping with two other Englishmen in a board shanty near the Sierras. For some days I was alone, and provisions were running short, when a heavy snowfall rendered the road to the village of difficult transit. But not far away lived a ranch-owner, in a good house with wide-spreading vineyards and orchards ; and he came in to see the solitary Britisher. Now, the bare state of the cabin, as regarded its larder, did not escape his eye, and shortly after he had gone I heard a knocking at the door ; opened it, and was confronted with a pretty California girl,

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his daughter, in whose hand was one of the finest specimens of the American pumpkin pie that it had ever been my fortune to behold! The young lady, for such she was, begged I would accept it with her parents compliments, received my somewhat embarrassed thanks, and departed. There was scarcely anything in the cabin to eat except that pie and some uncooked potatoes, so I attacked the pie, cutting out segment after segment from its generous circumference until, I must confess, I devoured it all at a single sitting. Later, the ranch-owner came down again, and, as the place was practically snow-bound, insisted upon taking me to his house. During the following day, pending the stopping of the snowfall, there was not much to do, so in return for their pie I undertook to instruct them in the making of an English pie—as regards the theoretical part, that is. They made it to my directions—or rather the ladies of the household did. “A deep dish filled with fruit, and no pastry on the bottom: a generous heaping supply of fruit; no thin scanty spreading of pumpkin, as in your pie (patriotic protests here); and then a cup placed in the middle to support the covering crust, so that when you eat this pie there is a large supply of fruit; and—please note this—when you think you have taken out all the juice, you lift the cup, and a further generous and unexpected flow appears.” The pie they made was excellent, and I heard afterwards it had become an established institution in that region, and was disputing sway with the original American pie. Thus I had influenced the “pie belt”.

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Now, in this matter of pies, I have wandered far from the theme of American humour. Next to the "pie joke" of the comic papers, probably the doings of the negro element or "coloured people" occupy the field, especially the matters of melon-stealing (water melons are supposed to be irresistible to the negro), chicken stealing (similarly attractive to the man of African race) and the grotesque dress and religion customs of these dark-skinned, simple-minded American citizens; for the negro preacher and his ways invariably figure in a comic paper.

The pot-bellied politician perhaps occupies next place in caricature; whilst, as to foreign politics, Uncle Sam, dressed in the stars and stripes, is a favourite figure, generally depicted as overawing a shivering group of the crowned heads of Europe, or laying down the tenets of international law. "Society" matters offer much field also for sarcasm or pathos. But the Uncle Sam which all men loved; the spare, humorous, kindly old fellow, a gentleman at heart, is more and more disappearing from the American papers, and a dictatorial type, or a mere plutocrat coming to being. The mind of the foreigner lingers lovingly about the figure of Abraham Lincoln and others, but the bloated Trust magnate or blatant and insincere political "reformer" touches no note of sympathy in the heart of the observer from the wearied Old World.

But I digress again. American humour, whilst it has delighted many of us in some of its aspects, is expressed in such forms often, especially in the newspapers, as has brought upon it the charge of a flippant lack of reverence. Indeed, the American

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comic paper might impress the British mind as showing—apparently—that the American reverences scarcely anything, and has little sense of dignity. Yet we cannot suppose that this, and the other undesirable qualities of their caricatures of things, are more than a passing phase. If we should come again in fifty years probably they will not be there.

American humour has generally been based upon some exposition of incongruity, or incongruous situations, which are made to be funny—a form of wit almost peculiar to the United States. A “ludicrous juxtaposition” of things, and a facetious understating or overstating, characterizes this form of humour. A few examples will suffice. There is the story of the Mississippi steamboat captain, who averred that his craft was of such light draught that he could navigate over the sand-bars *if there had been a sufficiently heavy dew in the night!* To appreciate this joke, some topographical knowledge is necessary, viz., that the great river is constantly changing its course; sand-banks arising suddenly in places; and steamers are often made of shallow draught. Indeed American humour often runs on the matter of topography, possibly from the fact that a young nation was brought so close to nature in the earlier development of its enormous territory. Thus we have the old story of the American who, travelling in Europe, was asked after crossing the Alps what he thought of them. He confessed “that he had *passed some rising ground* but had not specially noticed it!” Akin to that is the often-re-

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peated joke about the American who was always nervous about travelling too fast on British railways, for fear the train "might run off the darned little island!" Of train stories the traveller in America will hear many, including that about the Englishman who, journeying along one of the Western lines with an American companion, said he had heard that American trains were slow, but that, nevertheless, they were travelling fast at the moment, as the telegraph poles were flashing by. "Oh, no," the American is reported to have said, "those are not telegraph posts, but *mile-posts!*" There is another Western joke, about the slowness of the trains on a certain line, where a passenger had been forced to leave his dog behind at a certain station, due to regulations against animals in the carriages. When the train stopped again, after a long run, however, the conductor came through the car and said to the owner of the animal "that he guessed he had better take his dog aboard, for the gol-darned beast had been running along behind the train and had *licked off all the axle grease!*" I offer no apology, kind reader, for these singular and doubtless ancient yarns, known probably to you long ago, as I am only giving them as illustrations of Western humour. As we get farther towards the setting sun we encounter the crisp and often sardonic humour of the "wild and woolly West," where jokes on matters of natural history—such as snake stories, horse stories, coyote yarns, etc.—are generally referred to the "snake editor," "horse editor," etc. ; whilst matters of a personal character

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are reputed to be attended to by the "fighting editor". I recollect, upon staying in a hotel in Texas, that a companion informed me—he was an American from New York—that on a former occasion he had observed a card hanging upon the wall of the hotel bedroom with the following legend: "Gentlemen are requested to remove their spurs before retiring". It would be unkind to insinuate that guests generally retired to bed in an inebriated condition; but at any rate their boots alone, if they left them on, would not tear the sheets! Yet another phase of this incongruity in American humour is the admixture of the sublime and the ridiculous, or the pathetic and the commonplace, often with a grievous lack of reverence, such as shown by the notice said to have been inserted in a Western paper of the death of a beautiful girl who had long been ill. The paragraph in the paper is reported to have said: "Yesterday her pure spirit took its flight to its heavenly rest at 4.15 Denver time".¹ To fully appreciate this "joke" it must be recollected that there are four standard times in America, according to the meridian of the place.²

¹ I quote this from an American book.

² Eastern, Central, Mountain, and Pacific time.

CHAPTER XVIII

AMERICA AND BRITAIN

Civilizations compared—The more agreeable country—Millionaire immigrants—The charm of Britain—The “predatory rich”—Amenities of the Press—“Lobster-champagne-divorce stage”—Pittsburg—Bottled scandals—Socialistic menace—Britain compared—British immigration—Cost of living—Protection and Free Trade—Blindness of England—Love of England—English and Spanish languages—Esperanto—American intelligence—Lack of reverence—Mediocrity—American and English speech—General comparisons

It is natural for the English traveller in the United States, or the American traveller in Britain, to fall into the making of comparisons between the two countries. But it is a difficult thing to hold the balance between them, and to avoid hasty generalization upon one or the other, as a whole ; and all that can be done logically is to compare individual conditions. Yet mutual regard furnishes a common ground for discussion, whilst jealousy by the one of the other, or the assertion of superiority, or acknowledgment of inferiority, upon this or that circumstance, is always a stimulant, and works towards international understanding, in its way. Britain, with a deeper civilization and respect for law, is far ahead of the United States ; which, in its turn, with a marvellous spirit of enterprise and energy, is far

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beyond the old motherland. But both must be regarded as peoples in the making. The one is the heart of an Empire which is now to re-form or fall ; the other is a great land whose social life is in a state of flux.

Which is the more agreeable country to live in, America or Britain, is a question sometimes asked. It seems at first an idle question, and to the great bulk of toiling citizens who go to make up either nation it is. His own fatherland is the best country for the ordinary inhabitant. But the question is not an idle one, for there are two classes of people who, either from choice or necessity, sometimes exchange the one country for the other. The wealthy American may reside in Britain, or the immigrant from Britain may live in America.

It is a remarkable condition, but one which is not devoid of some satisfaction for the old country, that the wealthy class of other nations love to dwell in England and Scotland. Especially is this the case with our American kinsmen. The number of wealthy foreigners and American millionaires who constantly visit Great Britain or permanently take up their residence there is very considerable. In many cases these wealthy immigrants bring good blood—good because new and virile—into Britain, in the form of energetic sons or well-dowered and well-educated daughters, supplying a new vitality such as is beneficial to the old land. A good deal of New World wealth has gone towards restoring some of the “stately homes” of England, moreover.

Why do these wealthy immigrants come here ?

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The reason is twofold: topographical and social. England, or Great Britain generally, is singularly favoured by nature as a delightful homeland, as the returning traveller from a foreign strand finds again and again. It is old geologically. Nature has carried out her geographical experiments to the last stage, almost. The grim escarpments and towering peaks as in other lands, have been rounded off in these islands, to fill in fertile plains and valleys, the seat of pastoral life and agricultural serenity. Neither earthquakes nor tornadoes disturb the natural serenity of its geology or climate. Think of it, ye grumblers at Britain's climate! Neither flood nor pestilence assails us, for natural drainage is well established in our rolling lands, and tropical swamps and malarious forests are unknown. Nor has the enervating peace of meridional lands or equatorial luxuriance of vegetation taken root in Britain, for our northern, almost polar position, tempered by a great warm ocean current, gives us temperateness with health. So much for nature, upon whose environment man is a naturally following incident. In the British character and institution the same temperateness and thoroughness have come to being—to live and let live; a spirit of justice and mercy, permeated by elevated ideals and the sane growth of intelligence. America is a wonderful, glorious land of freemen. Its stupendous mountain ranges and vast deserts and plains contain everything man requires, yet the wealthy American loves to dwell in Britain when his days of stress are over. It is a remarkable fact that one reason for this has

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been given as that because "he wants to be let alone". The doings of prominent people in America are so minutely chronicled at times, that privacy is scarcely attainable. Naturally this condition has grown to being, in the first instance, because Americans have always liked to be in the limelight, after the fashion of new people, and their Press and sycophant reporters have only expanded the custom. In England the doings of millionaires are not much heralded in the Press, because the English character does not want to hear about them. Nor is there the same class of "predatory rich" in Britain; that class whose doings in America arouse such interest—whether of admiration or of censure—among the great bulk of the intelligent population. Yet even in England, with the growth of Democracy, we are beginning to ask, not only "how much have you got?" but also "how did you get it?"—a condition whose advantage or defect it is yet too early to determine. The American Press has become merciless in its attentions to millionaires and "society" people—attentions which amount, in many cases, almost to persecution and the sacrifice of decency and gentility to sensational "copy". The Press is a great safety-valve for America, but it is often soulless.

In a London paper¹ there appeared recently the views of an American millionaire, giving the reasons for his preference for Britain over America as a country for residence, and among them was the greater privacy enjoyed, and the more distinguished character of British society, as well as the greater

¹ "The Daily Mail."

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measure of comfort experienced in British homes and cities. These criticisms aroused, as was to have been expected, some antagonism in the United States Press ; and one of the criticisms it is interesting to quote. The journal¹ averred that the millionaire-writer of the article was a native of Pittsburg, and commented as follows :—

“ It is a fact that British newspapers make it a practice to cork up home-brewed scandals involving the upper classes. This Pittsburger accordingly finds himself entirely at home in London, because the newspapers of his own town are also in a conspiracy of silence to suppress all mention of scandal implicating the billionaire set of self-made misfits who have lately emerged from red-flannel shirts into the lobster-champagne-divorce stage of development. But it must be said in simple truth that these strange creatures are not stared, written, and paragraphed at until they reach the courts. In fact, before that seemingly inevitable step in their development they are unknown outside their own Pittsburg.”

This picturesque comment shows up two elements of the American pressman's composition. One is that he has thought it well to use a *tu-quoque* argument, which can scarcely be said to be correct (although doubtless there are occasional instances of “ bottling up ” scandal in high life in England), and the other displays that singular rivalry or jealousy which the Press of one American city often shows towards another, upon which we have enlarged elsewhere.

¹ “ Morning Telegram ” of New York.

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In the older civilization of Britain there is not the jealous rivalry between the various "society leaders" to be in the ascendant, such as exists in America, nor the heartburnings to belong to this or that "four hundred". Politics, moreover, in England, as has been shown in another chapter, are a clean and even noble occupation, whilst in America they are synonymous with unsavoury strife. Also the broad-world policy and widely varied interests of Great Britain, and the Imperial tone of its Press, are refreshing and expanding after the more parochial atmosphere of the American newspapers. It is not a matter for blame, this atmosphere of the American journals, exactly. The Americans have no "Empire" in the British sense, so cannot talk about it, and, moreover, they have until recently frowned upon any expansive or "Imperial" policy for their own nation; and only of late has fate—kinder than the pressmen—forcibly involved them in foreign affairs and begun to lift them out of their own selfish and contracted sphere. A spirit of detachment and proportion is growing now in America, which is of value to the American people.

Yet another main factor of difference between America and Britain is the matter of class antagonism. In England the rich and the poor are not drawn up into two hostile camps, as in the United States, glaring at each other with scarcely-veiled hatred. Underneath the busy hum of the wheels of American commerce there is a quiescent volcano of smouldering wrath, which is only kept under by

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the present prosperity of the country and the ready employment and comparatively high wage. When these fail there may be a terrible overflowing. The flagrant ostentation of the rich, their "freak" entertainments, their parade of luxury without nobility, has aroused a savage hatred among the great army of poor, who constantly ask why—and often with justice—they are not rich also. The oppression of trusts, moreover, partly real, partly fanciful, has sunk deep into the American public. The people of the poorer quarters of New York (for example) will never reflect that this or that "trust" at least causes money to circulate and sets on foot enterprises which otherwise would not have been conceived, but they never forget when a poor boot-maker or ice-man or grocer is "frozen out" of trade by the operations of this or that "trust". Unfortunately, in this connexion, the rich Americans do not seem to endeavour to appease Demos in any way; they do not often conciliate the people, as is the case in England, by a wise use of some of their wealth for the amelioration of the wretched conditions of the poor. Sweated labour, overcrowding, slum life, and all the terrible catalogue of modern conditions are as marked, or more marked, in New York or Chicago than in London, without, apparently, the softening influences at work such as exist in the older land.

Lest, however, we should fail to observe the beam in our own eye, let us recollect that America has offered a home for thousands, millions, of men and women of the British race who might have

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starved in their own land; and who, moreover, would have starved for all the constituted authorities of this ancient monarchy of Britain cared. For Britain also is a country of great landowners and oppressive landlords and plutocrats, and the people have had "no room to live". The history of Britain can never cleanse itself of its feudal stain, which remains unto to-day. More, Britain has, as her outlying provinces, one-fifth of the land area of the globe; whole continents lying fallow, full of unencumbered land and natural resources in her Colonies, yet she has never made, up to the year of grace 1910, any organized effort to give this heritage to her starving and unemployed poor; but, from sheer selfish apathy, has let them rot in the midst of plenty. The homeless and starving poor on the Thames Embankment in winter is a blot on the name of British civilization. Moreover, hundreds of thousands of good British citizens have gone away to build up a nation under another flag when Britain might have kept them under her own. So if America shows grievous sins of selfishness and corruption, no less does Britain show defects of criminal apathy and sins of omission on the part of those who have wielded Imperial power; and both nations may yet have to suffer for their acts. If we of Britain congratulate ourselves upon our wealthy immigrants and guests—the American and other millionaires—let us bear in mind the spectacle, which he who takes the trouble to open his eyes may see, of departing Englishmen on the landing-stages of our seaports bound for lands

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under another flag, when organization might have kept them within the Empire.

As regards the cost of living in the United States, it is much higher generally, than in England, notwithstanding misrepresentations which have been made in the British Press, to further political ends, that it is cheaper. This is due partly to the Trusts, which are to some extent the outcome of Protection, but principally to other causes. On the other hand, much more money is earned, as it is much more freely spent, than in England. As regards wages and scale of living, the American workman is far better situated than his British contemporary. Unemployment, moreover, is not a tithe as prevalent in the United States as in Britain ; that is, considering it as a general condition. The better circumstances, in this respect, of the American workman are not necessarily due to matters of tariffs only. England suffers from over-population and the feudal holding of her soil by the few ; added to the effects of her system of commercialism, under which a mere fraction of her people draw their living from the soil. There is an appalling danger in these geographical and political conditions, to which the British people are blind at present. Small geographically, England has brought to being a huge population which lives mainly by manufacturing and selling to other nations, but remains careless of that inevitable day when trade must decline and leave a large portion of her people workless, and consequently foodless. These conditions have already begun to show themselves, but sheer

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party strife obscures them from the general gaze. England has a remedy—in a proper organization and ownership of her boundless colonial real estate ; but no one has arisen to put it into practice. I have brought forward these conditions myself, as emphatically as a single voice may.¹ The United States does not suffer from these conditions. She has an enormous area of territory still undeveloped, part of her home country : and that is why she is more prosperous than Britain. Britain as an island-nation alone cannot advance farther ; America is a continent-nation.

The English emigrants to the United States are not, however, poor as a rule. Often they are men of a good class, and they generally become prosperous ; and from New England to Chicago, and thence to California, they are to be met with in all manner of business. But the Englishman or Scotchman rarely becomes a naturalized citizen of the Republic—or much more rarely than men of other nations. He dislikes to lose his British individuality. Probably it is the Englishman or Scotchman of the lower middle class who most easily adopts the United States as his home. He falls exactly into American ways ; his scope in life is much enlarged ; his horizon is greatly extended, and he becomes twice the man he was in his cramped British environment. At times, he even becomes anti-British, to a remarkable extent, although after a time this—not altogether unjustifi-

¹ My address to the Royal Society of Arts, 1 Feb. 1910, and various publications.

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able attitude—wears off, and he sees things with the wisdom born of experience. We have characterized this attitude as not unjustifiable, because he has weighed his country in the balance from afar, and found it wanting—as it lamentably is—in some things which concern his class.

The Briton of a higher calibre, however, takes a different view. Belonging to an order and condition which are superior to those of America, he naturally regards the country from a different standpoint, and for him the great Republic does not so easily form a permanent home. England and her culture, and love of country, call him back inevitably, if he can go, as indeed they ever draw back the Englishmen of all classes. As time goes on, to him her defects become dim—"with all her faults" they love her still—save the few "renegades" who from time to time we shall encounter.

If we look at the names of prominent people in the United States we shall note how greatly those of British nomenclature prevail. We find English and Scotch names in every part of the country, filling every kind of higher position. Those which seem to bear a Teutonic stamp appear to come in a secondary category, whilst those of apparently Latin origin—Italian, French, Spanish, etc., come next, followed by the heterogeneous list of other European countries. We must, however, beware of ascribing its derivation to every name of apparent Anglo-Saxon origin, because many of these are only disguised or evolved names from other sources. That is to say, the "foreign" name, in the

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United States, tends to disappear. This is due, to a certain extent, to that "British" characteristic which the American possesses, of tending to distrust the peoples, accents, and names of other races; and the naturalized foreigner, and in greater measure his children, soon note this attitude; and the terminating "o," "i," "ski," "z," double letters, and other singular-appearing evidences of their etymology, soon disappear from the names in the directories of American cities. To do such names justice, they are not necessarily more singular in appearance or pronunciation than some Scotch or English names. But the "Mc" of the Scotchman or the unsounded syllables of some English appellations never disappear, for the marked British name always carries a *cachet* which is imperishable in the United States.

It is, of course, this Anglo-Saxon characteristic which has kept universal the English language in the great Republic. Other languages do not take root. The rich, virile and succinct Spanish tongue has never taken hold of the people, even in California, where every geographical feature or locality bears the designation of some saint, or is described in the plentiful topographical vocabulary of Spanish. Nothing but English can ever take root in the United States, nor can that foolish whim of Esperanto, which a band of enthusiasts are trying to foist upon the world, ever flourish there. It savours too much of long hair, voluble gesture, pleated shirt fronts, and weird manners generally, ever to obtain a foothold in an Anglo-Saxon com-

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munity. More, who would desire to destroy or arbitrarily replace the beautiful architecture which a language is, by the introduction of a bastard jargon which men must learn in addition to their own. A universal language, when such comes about, we must suppose would be a natural blending of the chief tongues of the modern world. Next to English, Spanish is the best,—the easiest and at the same time most descriptive language in the world. If the misplaced energy of the Esperantists could be diverted towards introducing Spanish, or to blending—with the permission of philologists and literary men—Spanish with English, and the retaining of what French we have adopted, and the admission of useful German words, their work would be of value to the world. As it is they are trying to pull down the beautiful façades of the ages in order to establish some corrugated-iron structure in their places. *Abajo el Esperantismo! Viva el Castellano! Hurrah for English!*

But I trust to be pardoned this digression, and as regards the development of language in the United States, the Americans have endeavoured on more than one occasion to foist upon the Anglo-Saxon a clipped phonetic abomination of their own, which however does not take root. Even “catalog” nauseates its own creators, now, notwithstanding the experiments of a recent dictatorial president!

The educated Briton, during his sojourn in the United States, will observe that the *average* standard of intelligence of the bulk of the American people appears to be higher than in Europe. But he

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shortly finds that this is not necessarily intellectuality of a higher order, but that the American has learned to be sharper, smarter,—“cute”—and apparently more aggressive than the Briton. Stupidity is rarely seen; it is a constant rivalry of wits, in which, whilst the more solid qualities are often lost sight of, a grade of cleverness appears, which does its owner valiant service in the struggle for life. The bulk of the American people have reached a certain average height of intelligence, but they do not easily rise above it; with a result that a great intellectual class, as in Britain, does not yet grow to being.

Doubtless the levelling tendency of American life is responsible for this. Moreover, no man dare set himself up; he is immediately clawed down by the mob. He cannot set himself up; it is an attribute of democracy, as existing in America, that the units cannot get out of the atmosphere which envelops the whole body politic. In England it is not so. A statesman, churchman, or distinguished person of letters, or indeed of any calling, when he rises to eminence is at once and naturally clothed with a mantle of respect, which no one endeavours to tear from him. In America he is public property: no difference is recognized between his and the common clay: no glamour of title, hereditary or acquired, shields him from public familiarity, or from the impertinence of those jackals of the Press, the reporters. The American people have lost the power for reverence; the great stream of Republican life has not only rubbed off the individualistic

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corners of the common pebbles in this great conglomerate mass, but has dulled the polished facets of the gems. In one respect, perhaps, the body politic gains, in that it is striving to lift itself, as a whole, higher, by the mere claiming of elevation and the pulling down of the peaks which, in other communities, endeavour to rear their crests above it. But—to continue the topographical simile—a level plain can scarcely increase its elevation by bringing down the few hills which rise above it; or very slowly, and it loses in distinction by so doing. Thus America has a dearth of deep thinkers and writers; her philosophies are generally commonplace or blatant rather than distinguished—often enunciations of mere professors who start up suddenly on the crest of a craze of their own production and then sink down again. Nor does the United States produce those great “pro-consuls,” such as are so valuable a feature of British public life: nor those disinterested and conscientious statesmen who so wholesomely govern the Empire. Why is this? The answer is already sufficiently given: it is doubtless a question of time and development.

Another attribute which we shall observe among our American kinsmen is that, as regards the mass of the people, their speech seems more grammatical than that of the lower class of the British Isles. Indeed, it is a common American claim that English is better spoken in the United States than in England. This is true inasmuch as there is no peasant class in America and consequently none of

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the dialects which are found in Britain. All the Americans, from New York to San Francisco, speak alike, practically. But it is not true of the educated classes of America, whose speech, both in accent and ideal, is immeasurably below that of the great refined class of England. No contrast can be greater than that between the speech of the refined Englishman or woman and that of the upper-class American. The virile yet mellifluous voice of the English upper class is the highest type of speech that has been developed, but it is unattainable, so far, in America. The most notable difference between the general American and lower-class English speech, is that the aspirate is never dropped in the former, as is the case in the latter. The poorest farm hand or oily mechanic never drops his "h's" in the United States. On the other hand, grammatical vagaries are quite as common as in England, and the double negative is the most objectionable. The "that ain't no good, mister," of the American middle class is not an improvement on "that be'ant any good, zur," of the Devonshire labourer, whilst "them ain't no good," is equally common. The fact is, that the speaking of their mother tongue leaves much to be desired in both countries among a certain class, and it seems remarkable that no national movement to improve it has been brought about.

In this latter connexion we shall have observed, if we understand and speak Spanish and have travelled in the sister republics of Latin-America, how much better the Spanish-American speaks his

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language than the Anglo-American speaks his, and how much greater a range of words he employs. If we listen to the Mexican or the Peruvian we shall be surprised at his vocabulary of high-sounding words, even among the lower classes.

One of the marked differences which we shall not fail to note between Great Britain and the United States is a social difference—the lack of “snobbishness” in the latter country. One of the greatest defects of English life, especially in country towns and districts, is the insuperable class distinction which the English character sets up. Cold, unkind, slighting, is the behaviour of people, especially in country towns, towards those whom they consider, for one cause or another, different to or beneath them. We may endeavour to see a virtue in it, of British reserve, and so forth, but we shall end in disgust that a civilized people chooses to dwell apart so much, as regards social intercourse. Mark the decaying signs of life of our country towns. Beautiful often in their environment, shadowed by memories of history and religion, inhabited by a highly educated and refined people, they are yet centres of aloofness and reserve which Recording Angels must weep to see. Across the thresholds of each other’s dwellings the people rarely pass; they meet each other daily and never bow; the well-appointed carriage or automobile scatters the dust on the King’s highway, in disdain of the “lower class,” as it did 500 years ago. The traveller, his sympathies broadened by half a life among men and mountains in the New World, will ask himself which

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is the happier world—England or America. “I wish I were an American,” he may be tempted to exclaim as he recollects the good-humoured equality of North Americans. “Thank God, I am an Englishman !” he says, when, in the materialistic glare of a blatant metropolis of money-getting Americans, he beholds the ruthless struggle for life, crowding the weak to the wall, and good humoured only because successful ! “A plague on both your homes,” he may be tempted to add, as he vainly endeavours to strike the just balance.

CHAPTER XIX

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Excellence of manufacture—"Too old at forty"—Upstart young men—Business methods—American "hustle"—American enterprise—London "share-peddling"—American financial methods—British honesty—"Paper" operations—The Robber Barons—An apology for the Trusts and magnates—Americans as sportsmen—American "cuteness" in sport—Poor losers—North Pole tactics—International kindliness—British and American friendship—Popular prejudices—"Unwritten alliance"—American ambassadors—General impressions—The future of Anglo-Saxon government—Democracy, Empire, Commonwealth—The future of commercialism—America and the world—America's splendid destiny

THE Americans have inherited the British characteristic or power, and it might be taken as the motto of the Anglo-Saxon people generally, of doing everything and doing it well. Especially is this the case in manufacturing and other industries. No other people accomplish this in such a marked degree as the Anglo-Saxon. The make of British goods is renowned throughout the world for excellence, and the American reputation is only secondary because the plan has been adopted of making things only durable enough to last their purpose, with an evolutive scrap-heap always in view. It is not meant to claim a monopoly of excellence for the

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Anglo-Saxon people. Other nations make things well, and have indeed their superior specialities; but they lack that universal characteristic of excellence in manufacture which turns out everything successfully, "from a needle to a locomotive".

But the rush of the commercial tide in the United States has produced certain conditions which are foreign to Britain. Among them is the singular obsession which was recently embodied in the words "too old at forty". That is to say, allowing for the exaggeration due to all aphorisms, that at this comparatively youthful age a man was to be considered incapable of holding his place in the ordinary work of the business world. As a matter of fact, nothing impresses the foreigner so much as the lack of respect paid by youth to age in the United States, as also the lack of respect exacted by age from youth. We meet young men everywhere, either "young-old" men or young men of upstart demeanour. They are generally capable, but self is strongly marked upon their features. The lack of older men, wiser men, more courteous men, in American offices is almost painful to the Briton, accustomed to the older generation which generally controls English enterprises. There is no virtue in keeping young men back, but on the other hand it is not natural to proclaim men too old at forty, or fifty, or sixty. That would be to use up generations of brains and judgment faster than they come. Moreover, the high pressure at which Americans work results in prematurely ageing men in the United States. Prominent mil-

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lionaires and "railway kings" give way and die, according to their medical men, partly from their overwrought mode of life. Probably the condition will not last, and when it passes, with other American mercantile defects, the Americans will be a more reverent people, and will find that life is really beginning at forty.

There is a generally accepted theory, in connexion with this high pressure American atmosphere, that the American accomplishes a great deal more business between sunrise and sunset than the Englishman. Careful observation does not necessarily bear this out, however. It is true that the New Yorker is in his office long before the Londoner, and that he rushes out and about with unparalleled energy, but it is doubtful if the net result is any greater. There is much more desire to do business and a greater spirit of enterprise in the Americans, but the man who does business has always to reckon with circumstance, which is not to be moved by constant pin-pricks always, however skilfully applied. Yet, as a result, in bulk, America is beginning to do more business than Britain. In London we seem to mark a lack of enterprise: a fear of launching out; the spirit of the Elizabethan times which fitted out expeditions for the Unknown seems to be vanishing; and the mere buying and selling of shares seems at present to have taken its place. Is it a note of decadence? It is better to open a mine or build a railway, even if it does not pay any dividend at first, rather than to leave the money idle in the bank. The Briton often seems to think

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that if he spends money and reaps no dividends it is lost ; the American—unconsciously it may be—understands that at least it has gone into circulation and will appear back somehow or sometime. Observe the myriad advertisements in the American papers asking for money, for enterprises or openings, good, bad, fraudulent, yet all throbbing with the desire to be up and doing, “with a heart for any fate”. Then look at the English papers where the only advertisements dealing with any exchange of cash or brain power are a few pettifogging “partnership” items, and those of the professional thieves who kindly “lend money on note of hand alone,” etc. In London you cannot get money for new enterprise ; you cannot sell your brains nor make a fortune both for yourself and for those who have the enterprise to assist with their capital. You are condemned to cankerous inaction, or else to the tender mercies of a legion of doubtful promoters. In the American cities it is not necessarily so. There are innumerable capitalists who put up money to father and finance promising new departures every hour of the day, without the intermediary of the promoter ; and all credit be given to them for the spirit. In England we want an infusion or invasion of Americans. We do not want their corruption or their dishonesty—it could not live on our soil—but we want their spirit of enterprise and open-handedness.

There is, of course, another side to the picture of American finance ; that concerning business morality, which has been touched upon previously.

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The unscrupulous operations of the trusts and of the directors of companies and institutions whom it would have been supposed would be above reproach, are matters of astonishment to the foreigner. The main cause of the difference between the methods employed in high financial operations in England and America lies in the character of the class of men who control them. In both countries the inflation of currency on its slender base of real cash existence and reserves takes place; as well as the inflation of credit following thereon; enormously greater in the United States, however; and the whole forms an unstable structure or inverted pyramid, whose periodical toppling causes disasters. But in Britain we can take comfort from the fact that the men in whose hands the power to create these inflated structures lies, are men of conservatism and honour, generally gentlemen, and of scrupulously honest methods, who work from a principle. In America these conditions are rare. The power of inflation is in the hands of those who generally care little for considerations of honour, whose financial morals are bad, and whose principles are the savage ones of purely personal gain. In Britain men know that they will be social outcasts if, in places of public trust, they forget the honour due from Christian men; in America such a deterrent is rare, and this holds good not only in the United States but to some extent in Spanish-America also. If the Canadians are redeemed from this atmosphere it is because of their heritage of British alliance. These strictures are not made in

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any unkind spirit ; they are patent to any man of affairs who has sojourned in America.

It is, of course, to be recollected that financial operations, whether problems or disasters, play a part in the United States whose importance has never been reached in Britain, or any other country. Matters of currency and bi-metallism have never become political questions in England, as in the United States ; nor have policies for or against currency systems formed "planks" in the "platforms" of political aspirants for power. Nor are "paper" operations so deep-laid or widespread in Britain as in transatlantic circles, and consequently the inflation, or the pricking, of financial bubbles are of less effect, except among a relatively small circle. So, if the British public or capitalist seems less enterprising than the American, they at least suffer less in disaster.

Other things the Americans have inherited and augmented from Britain. In the United States history is repeating itself as regards the Robber Barons. In England on many a hill-summit stands a church, which in centuries past owed its origin to the belated piety of some feudal lord, who, having lived in rapacity upon the people, and finding his days drawing to an end and the sands of this world's lusts running out, consulted with his friars and compounded with his conscience to build a church. In the United States the Robber Baron of the twentieth century has not generally built churches, but his atonement has taken the form of Libraries, Universities and Art Institutions. Professors, not

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friars, have been the figures which have danced to the golden strings he pulled: but the principle, though removed in space, time, and environment, has been the same. We are not holding up to absolute condemnation either the mediaeval or the coeval predatory chief. If we view them dispassionately we shall find that they were a part of natural development. The Robber Barons of Britain and Germany who stole the people's land and levied toll upon them, unconsciously created centres or nuclei around which civilization grew. Bitter as it is to have to acknowledge it, art, medicine, literature, science, grew up principally among the hangers-on of mediaeval castles, nourished by the crumbs which fell from the rich man's table. The Robber Barons built castles—armourers were necessary; they were obliged to send messages—literature evolved; they pricked each other in combat—"leeches" and doctors grew to being; and when the last dread hour came for them to approach the valley of the shadow, ghostly consolers laid the seeds of a clerical profession. So it is in America to-day. The greed of railway kings causes the Continent for thousands of miles to be crossed with railways; copper kings, steel kings, oil kings, all have created by their lust for wealth and power great centres of throbbing activity, great retinues of wage-earning workers, which without them would not have existed. They are part of Nature's plan; materializing-points in the ceaseless and inexplicable operations which she is carrying on in the plan of evolution of man—her latest creation. Let the clamouring multitude

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remember this, and not pull them down too hastily. They have their allotted space to perform : they are but instruments, and in her own time Nature will bid the feet of clay give way and the colossi will fall prone—their work accomplished. In every nation and every time the same process has taken place, and is only modified and not removed as the civilizing centuries roll on.

To turn now from the weary world of business : the Americans have inherited the British love of doing things well in their capacity for sport ; real trials of skill and strength such as the Anglo-Saxon people above all others have brought to being. No nation in the world understands or practises all kinds of sport as do the English and the Americans. Germans, Frenchmen, Spaniards, Spanish-Americans, and the Latin race generally, have often some element of theatricality or ulterior motive underlying their pastimes—dress, vanity or other, which the Anglo-Saxon character abhors. In those classes of sports which Britain originated the Americans have shown themselves adepts and have often become superior to Englishmen in trials of skill and endurance. This we find to be the outcome of the added quality of greater ingenuity ; a legitimate adjunct.

In some cases, however, this ingenuity has degenerated into trickiness with the Americans. The Americans are not as good sportsmen as their kinsmen of Britain in the sense of equanimity under defeat, or in the strict chivalry and fairness of the game ; and it would only be hypocritical to pre-

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tend that they are. The reason of this is not difficult to see. It comes from an overweening desire to win, which tends to eliminate at times the love of the game for its own sake, and to the sacrificing of method to result. No one likes to lose, of course, but the American far less than the British, and this is explainable—and partly excusable—on the ground that the Americans have been in the position of a youngster who had yet to establish his reputation, whilst the British were of the rank of veterans. There is no matter affecting Britons and Americans which so easily gives rise to great bitterness as that of their relative fairness in sport; and Englishmen often avoid discussion of it not to provoke ill-feeling. But there is a deep-rooted conviction in the British mind that Americans are sometimes unscrupulous in times of stress, in their sports; and former international contests¹ have not banished the preoccupation. This win-at-any-price spirit has been strikingly borne out recently in the matter of Polar discovery and adventure. The names of two American explorers have echoed through the civilized world in somewhat unseemly wrangle; the result of selfish procedure which partly defeated its own ends. Consumed by the egoistic desire to be the only white man at the Pole, each explorer left his companions at the last parallel of latitude and rushed for the coveted goal alone with unreliable natives. So their veracity has been jeopardized and one has been disproved; and the

¹ The Marathon race at the Olympic games, in London, for example.

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scientific value of their journeys minimized. Would a British expedition have indulged in so selfish and tricky a method? It would not, and the story of the British Antarctic journey is a very different tale. Apart from this element in the character of the American, the qualities of dash and energy which they display are always admired by Englishmen; and by reason of them Americans are sometimes enabled to win where others fail; and the more deliberate British character has sometimes fallen short of success for lack of the legitimate cheating of circumstance which is a marked American trait.

The kindly feeling displayed between Britons and Americans on all public occasions is a pleasing evidence of the friendship, or more than friendship, which lies below the occasionally ruffled surface of transatlantic intercourse—ruffled by the winds of jealousy or pique at times. Any educated Englishman who travels in the United States will testify to the fact that Englishmen are always esteemed by Americans. It could scarcely be otherwise. Whatever offences in the past each nation has committed against the other (and they have been not infrequent), the two peoples are, after all, relatives, and mortal quarrels or dislikes can scarcely endure between brothers. The English gentleman, in the eyes of the American, is, and ever will be, the foremost, most authoritative, and most honoured person from Europe. Other nationalities are not slighted, but the Briton enters America, or the American enters Britain, with the same feeling that the visitor enters his brother's or cousin's

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house ; whilst the German or the Frenchman must make their call with the polite formality of acquaintances. Probably it is true that the Americans know and understand Englishmen better than the latter know the former ; but Americans must always have a foremost place in British esteem ; more and more so as they develop. If Americans are sometimes hardly judged in England it must be recollected that insular prejudice is hard to overcome, and that they themselves by reason of the many idiosyncrasies they have evolved in the past, are largely responsible for it. If the Englishman of lower middle class, who has never crossed the Atlantic, thinks, as he often does, that "the American always carries a revolver, to pull out on you : or will always get the best of you somehow," we may not set it down as a prejudice entirely, but rather as the deserved reputation of the past, helped by novel writers and pressmen. If the average London city man says, as he often does, "Oh, I don't believe in anything American, you know," when referring to investments, it shows that he has not yet grasped the condition of modern America, but is still obsessed by its past history. It shows both his own ignorance, and how slow-dying ideas about nations are. The new spirit arising between Great Britain and the United States is one which must banish past estrangements and jealousies. Britain was unnecessarily supercilious in the past, her upper class, from dukes to merchants, held a despising attitude towards Americans, whom they pretended to regard as upstarts, an attitude founded on the British spirit

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of snobbery partly, and lack of real knowledge of the transatlantic people. This would never have been overcome if the Americans had sat down under it. They did not. They showed first, wounded susceptibilities, followed by irritation, which, as time went on, gave way to a deep-seated resentment and jealous coldness, which is hardly a matter for surprise. This phase still largely exists, but is passing: and a new spirit is arising in America of reverence for tradition and appreciation of what is good in Conservatism, and a desire to share therein.

Much is made at the present time of the supposed alliance in sentiment between the English and the American people. On the one hand we are told that the United States would rally to the support of an endangered Britain: on the other, that the Republic would be coldly indifferent to anything which might befall the Empire. The only reply that can be made to these asseverations is that Americans, as regards their attitude to England, are much divided. Nor must we forget in this connexion, that the great Celtic and Teutonic elements—the Irish and the German—are, if not anti-British, certainly not pro-British, and both these elements are increasing in the United States. Yet, without being carried away by sentiment necessarily, we shall not be able to banish the thought that America would strive to range herself on Britain's side if the hour and the cause required it, and would be proud to do so. If we are wrong it should make no fatal difference, for, on the other hand, Britain's strength must be in herself and her Empire. She values the

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friendship of America more than that of all the other nations, but she would never ask for what were withheld. Both among Englishmen and Americans there are not wanting many who hold that some "unwritten alliance" between these two great Anglo-Saxon leaders might be beneficial to the peace of the world at large and the advancement of commerce and civilization. Probably they are not mistaken; possibly such a condition might be brought about. Moreover, the fine type of her public men, those Ambassadors which the Republic has selected to represent her at the Court of St. James, have proved how similar English and American ideals become, in things that make for refinement and progress. But the strongest bond between the two countries is their common heritage of language, literature, and laws, especially the first, and no sane observer there is but will believe that this bond is growing as time goes on.

General impressions rather than details remain upon the mind in surveying a land and people from an evolutionist standpoint. We have seen, in America, a great throbbing community stretching across a mighty continent, showing such diverse elements, of social life and of natural landscape, as do not exist in any other continent of the world. We have marked the condition of uniformity among the people, reminding us of a great ant-army: persistent, industrious, undistinguished by marked individualities, but unobstructed in their march either by traditions, mountains, or deserts. Doubtless

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Nature will have her own time for producing among them those mortals of distinguished type who always rise from out of the ruck.

Can we discover in this great democracy any portent of real advancement for human society, such as we must confess to be our purpose in examining it? Some of its phases have appalled us, and might almost cause the observer to turn away with regret as the principal sentiment aroused. But we shall not be overcome too greatly by these matters. We shall rather delight to consider a vast mass of law-abiding, normal, and progressive people, such as fill the towns and the farms on every hand. The Americans are working out the great principles of self-government, and all the things they have to fight against are obstacles such as, in lesser degree, an individual encounters in his own battle of life. If they did not exist there would be nothing to overcome. It is refreshing to turn from the details of everyday life and to consider a people as a whole on broad lines. It is to turn from sordidness to nobility, from a doubt in progress to a cognizance of great destiny. Just as, in America, we shall have been oppressed by grave defects, so do our spirits rise as we consider their character as a nation. We of Britain believe the Americans to be a righteous people, just as we believe ourselves to be so. Oppression of weaker nations is foreign to Britain and foreign to America, nor does either nation strive to hide its good qualities by "sabre-rattling". To live and let live is the Anglo-Saxon motto, neither bombastic nor pusillanimous, whilst

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strictly guarding its own and keeping what it has legitimately obtained, against all comers. Absence of hypocrisy on the one hand, or pretension on the other, mark the British and the American national characters.

Both countries are subject to grave social ills at present, and are far—lamentably far—from any adjustment of internal conditions such as the civilization of this new century is demanding. Britain is scarcely, or only just, waking up to the real needs of her people and a common-sense organization of her resources. Divided by the seas from the outlying portions of her great estate, it is far harder for her to possess or develop these than it is for the Americans to swarm with men and money to the conquest of their own deserts. Both nations must grasp the fact that some form of distribution—we cannot call it “Socialism”—of national possessions is the next inevitable phase of national life. The British Empire must become an Imperial Commonwealth, if it is to endure: the United States must also evolve into a Commonwealth, which it is far from being at present. The moulding of this phase is in the hands of the present custodians of national property, and they are on their trial on both sides of the Atlantic. The problems to be met or the method of meeting them, are not necessarily appalling or intricate if we can but increase our sense of toleration and justice, both among ruling and governed classes. To organize our natural sources of life, to eliminate the empty belly and the idle hand, to strengthen the people in

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quiet enjoyment of the land, rather than in the fever of commercialism, will be the first step towards creating that race of "gentlemen," whether peasant or millionaire, which we shall, in spite of discouragement and disillusion, hold to in our belief of an evolutive "excelsior". Democracy is on its trial in England—in Europe—as well as in America. But one of the most marked lessons for England to learn from the experiments of her transatlantic kin, is to keep her municipal affairs clear of politics, and to retain the presence and spirit of the gentleman in civic government to the utmost. Probably, Britain, and other European countries, will be in no haste to throw aside their monarchical constitutions to adopt those democratic ones of America, or to substitute disinterested representatives for paid bureaucracies; although they will follow with growing interest the grand experiment of Democracy taking place on the other side of the Atlantic, of which in these pages we have sought to show some pictures.

The United States must be looked upon as a great factor for peace in the world, for two reasons; first, because the Americans are a peaceful people; second, because they are so largely engaged in business with the world. This second condition may, in the not distant future, become somewhat modified. The Republic will not be able to sell its exports of raw material in the same lavish manner as heretofore, as it will require its corn, cotton, and other staples for its own consumption. It will not be able to sell its manufactured products, perhaps,

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as the exigencies of employment in other countries are creating tariff walls: and other nations must reserve the manufacture and supply of things they want to their own manufactories. Probably also there is to appear on the world's horizon a phase of simpler life. Half of the world is engaged in making things and selling them to the other half; things which people really do not want, and, in the near future, may not buy. This may bring about a more intensive occupation and cultivation of the soil, more pastoral virtue, and a consequent improvement of civilization. It is hardly likely that nations will begin to fight in order to force the sale of their manufactured articles upon each other!

The United States as a world-power is a matter of importance to Europe. The aloofness which geography enables the Americans to retain is a valuable condition both for the Old and the New Worlds. Freed from the anxiety of the "armed camp," untouched by the jealousies and rivalries of bordering States, perhaps America will become a worthy mentor upon her isolated pedestal, such as the evolutionist mind loves to imagine. In all our considerations of her present defects we shall bear in mind that the Republic is scarcely more than beginning her career. Upon the mind of the traveller it will always be impressed, as he views the unoccupied realms of the world: upon the heart of the student of civilization it will always be stamped; that the world is in its infancy. Our observation both of men and mountains show us this. We are not inhabiting a weary, old, worn-out world.

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but a young mother earth, in whatever quarter of the globe we dwell, or by whatever race-nomenclature we may designate our individual selves. The United States is one of the latest born of her offspring, and, as our mind roams over her vast plains and mountains and countless new cities, and marks the indomitable spirit of her people, we shall nourish no final thought save that of a belief in her growing ideals and splendid destiny. We believe that the New World shall yet redeem its promise, that Americanism and nobility are meant by nature to be synonymous, and that evolution is working on towards its due fulfilment within these mighty regions Farthest West.

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